

# The Nation.

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## The Week.

THERE are fuller details about the election frauds in South Carolina, which seem to have been very brazen and to have involved two tricks, one by which the small tissue-paper ballots were dropped into the box, and the other by which, when the excess of the number of ballots over the number of voters in the district was revealed by the count, and the ballots were put back into the box to have the excess withdrawn as the law directs, the Republican tickets were dexterously placed on the top so as to come out first. These are frauds, in fact, which would not be perpetrated on any party that was not considered too helpless and stupid to protect itself, which is what the Republican party in South Carolina is, being composed in the main of ignorant negroes led by a few disreputable adventurers who cannot face their opponents with any moral courage. The contempt of the Democrats for them, too, is expressed in the recent legislation regarding the polling places and the hours of voting, which is a sort of advanced gerrymandering. The polling places were reduced in number in Charleston County, for instance, about one-third in the city and two-thirds in the county, so as to compel the voters, most of them poor men, to make journeys of from ten to forty miles in order to vote. In one parish the polling place on the mainland was abolished, and the votes had to be cast on an island with which there was no regular communication either by bridge or ferry. The time within which votes could be cast was also fixed at 720 minutes, and in some places one thousand votes would have to be cast at a single polling place, making the exclusion of a considerable number, of course, very easy.

These facts are brought out, as they should be, in a strong but temperate address to the Democrats of Charleston County by Mr. J. B. Campbell, a lawyer of Charleston, and himself one of the Democratic candidates, and the letter shows from what quarter the remedy is to come, and encourages us to hope that from that quarter it will come—that is, those whites of the State whom this performance disgusts, and who will not submit to it. Mr. Campbell is a man of high standing and an old Democrat, and was a candidate for re-election to the State Senate, but has been defeated. He now appeals to his brother Democrats in an angry and vigorous protest. He exposes and denounces the legislation regulating the voting, and the frauds by which it was followed up. He shows that the Democrats of the State are really divided into two parties—one favoring what is called “the Hampton policy,” and the other “the aggressive policy,” of which General Gary is the leading exponent, and which has got the upper hand in the party in Charleston County. The Hampton policy proposes the political coalition of the whites and blacks on equal terms and in good faith; the other the exclusion of the blacks either by force or fraud from all share in the government. The hope of the negroes lies in strengthening the Hampton men like Mr. Campbell, and giving them a real interest of ambition and pride in the negro vote, which after a while they will certainly protect. The way to ruin their cause is to force the two factions to unite in a common pride of race, and in common anxiety about their property, by indiscriminate Northern denunciation supported by a solid negro vote for disreputable “carpet-baggers” and “scalawags.” One half-hour’s indignation of a South-Carolinian of Mr. Campbell’s kind is worth more to the negro than ten yards of Northern newspaper invective.

The difficulties the Federal Government will have to contend with in trying to settle election quarrels in Southern States, and the

impossibility of forming a rational opinion on almost any incident of Southern political life, as reported in our papers, are well illustrated by a late article in the *Charleston News and Courier*, giving “the other side.” In Barnwell County, in which it says there are two thousand negroes on the Democratic rolls, the United States Commissioner has been arresting colored Democrats, one of them, named Gantt, in his bed, pulling off “his only garment,” and cursing and abusing him, accusing him—a small, timid man—of intimidating one Nix, “a powerful and desperate mulatto.” Mr. Wiggin, too, the United States Commissioner who authorizes these arrests, and was elected circuit judge along with Moses and Whipper, privately assures the citizens that nothing more will be heard of the cases after election. In Darlington County the testimony showed there was “pleasantness at the election all day long,” and the arrested persons were discharged. The story of trouble was got up by one Farborg, a United States marshal, who retracted on the stand, but, it is sad to hear, “will probably be sent to the penitentiary at the next term of the court for tobacco-stealing.” In Richland County the false swearing of the witnesses was so plain that five were immediately lodged in jail for perjury, and the *Courier* exultantly contrasts with the calm and confident demeanor of the accused Democrats the conduct of the negro witnesses, “who seek the woods and swamps as soon as they find that false swearing can no longer be indulged in with impunity in South Carolina.”

It is plain to be seen that there has been on one side a great deal of fraud and intimidation, and that the other side, in trying to punish it, is embarrassed terribly by the fact that its officers and witnesses are generally bad characters, and sometimes men for whom “at least one penitentiary is yawning,” and that affidavits of intimidation can probably be had for a quart of whiskey the yard, and that the Democrats avail themselves of this fact to discredit all the witnesses and hunt them down. Also, that the confusion is worse confounded by the Northern press, which is working up the whole matter in preparation for the next election, with the aid of “reliable gentlemen” who forward harrowing tales “with the request that their names may not be revealed,” which of course relieves the writers from some of the most inconvenient restraints on the composition of narratives.

Mr. Waddell, the Democratic candidate for Congress in the Third District of North Carolina, who was defeated by a small majority, has written a very creditable letter to his constituents, in which he refuses to contest the election on the ground of technical irregularities or because the case would be tried before a Democratic House. Inasmuch as he believes the election was practically fair and honest, he says he will not lend himself to any attempt to defeat the will of the majority expressed at the polls. This shows what has become a rare conscience in political affairs, and is also an indication that Southerners are not so destitute of political honor, or so reckless in the use of every means at hand for seizing control of national affairs, as some of our contemporaries would have us believe. It is a novel thing, and points to the beginning of a sort of republicanism which has never existed at the South, when a politician looks upon a majority, black or white, not as something to be “managed” in private or party interest, but as something which all good citizens must respect and aid as the final judge of what is for the public welfare.

Gen. Sheridan’s recent strictures on the Indian Bureau, to whose irregularities he attributed the late Indian outbreaks, and the report of Gen. Gibbon, commanding the Department of Dakota, in which he stated that the check upon the frauds of Indian agents through army inspection was ineffectual, owing to defects in the system of responsibility in the Indian Bureau, have led Secretary Schurz to write a somewhat heated letter to the Secretary of War,

asking for the specific facts upon which Gen. Sheridan founded his statements, and commenting sharply on the discourtesy of such general criticism from officers of one department upon those of another. The letter was forwarded through the proper channels to Gen. Sheridan, and he will doubtless make an attempt to justify himself which it is not worth while to anticipate. Pending his reply, however, he has made public some earlier correspondence of a similar character and tone in regard to the recent removal of the Indian agency at Fort Sill. In a letter to the Secretary of War he charged that by the removal the Indian Bureau saved \$100, and the War Department would lose \$100,000; that the Indians were removed to a worse locality, and that in his belief (which Gen. Sherman endorsed) there had been deceit and improper motives at work in the transaction. Without prejudging the quarrel, there is force in General Sherman's observation that he and Gen. Sheridan are familiar with the country and the Indians and have better opportunities for correct judgment than the Secretary. On the other hand, they cannot be supposed to be familiar with all the reasons for the acts of the Bureau which they condemn. The common ground between the disputants is clearly this, that whatever frauds upon the Indians or deception of himself the army officers can prove, Secretary Schurz will gratefully acknowledge and promptly punish. Of this we may be sure. Meantime this passage between the two departments should arouse the public to the lamentable fate of the subjects of it, for ever left between the upper and nether millstones of a policy which is neither civil nor military, nor accountable to any one authority, nor in any proper sense regardful of the future. Mr. Morgan's letter, which we publish on another page, points, as we believe, to the only rational and hopeful solution of the problem.

The Bank of England raised its reserve during the week from 38½ per cent. to 40½ per cent. of its liabilities, and reduced its discount rate from 6 to 5 per cent. The rate outside the bank fell to 4 per cent., and British consols advanced from 95½ to 96½ per cent. Here the United States Treasury began exercising its privileges as a member of the New York Clearing-House, in pursuance of the arrangement recently made by the Secretary of the Treasury and the banks. The Baltimore banks, after having conferred with the Secretary of the Treasury, resolved to take no action, at present, of the kind taken by the New York banks respecting silver; and it is given out that the Philadelphia banks will follow Baltimore rather than New York in this matter. The German Government sold £250,000 silver bullion during the week at 50½*d.* per ounce; the closing price in London was 50½*d.* Here the bullion value of the 412½-grain dollar at the close of the week was \$0.8546.

The Latin Union seems to have fallen completely into the hands of "the money power." The convention concluded recently prohibits all further coinage of silver during the coming year, except in the case of Italy, which has the right to issue \$4,000,000. For six years after January, 1880, coinage of silver in five-franc pieces, or pieces of any larger size, is wholly forbidden. We observe that Mr. George Walker, in a letter to the *Evening Post*, reports that one of our delegates to the late "Silver" Conference told him, as one good result of the conference, that "it had put an end to any further propagation of gold mono-metallism." The mono-metallic propagandists will hardly care much about their propagandism as long as its objects are carried out.

The Marquis of Lorne and the Princess Louise have arrived in Canada amidst the greatest excitement on the part of the population of all classes. Some of the newspaper articles on the event read like extracts from Ossian, and the addresses presented by various societies and other bodies are couched in language which ought to be Persian. The mind of the Dominion, too, appears to be much absorbed in the mysteries of court etiquette, and we are sorry to learn that in spite of frequent "parlor rehearsals" the ladies have not learned as yet to back out from the Princess's presence with either dignity or dexterity. There is also

much questioning as to whether Her Royal Highness will, when better acquainted with the Canadian climate, insist on the "low-neck and short-sleeves" rule with regard to Court dress. We ought to add that the excitement is not confined to the Dominion. Some of our own papers give as much space to the Governor-General's history and progress, and discuss both with as much fervor of language, as they could possibly accord to the most striking events of modern history. It is hardly possible, in fact, in view of it all, to avoid regarding the Marquis's appointment, in spite of his virtues and talents, as a misfortune for Canada. A court in the backwoods, where neither the manners nor traditions nor social ideas have made a place for it, must of necessity be a good deal of a sham, and the loyalty which it will call forth will necessarily find expression in mere imitation of forms borrowed from another country and a wholly different society. A court to be a court, too, must have a "court circle"—or, in other words, "draw the line somewhere" as to the people it receives. It must set in motion a thousand mean jealousies and passions and competitions, which are only tolerable in England because time has given them an air of fitness and dignity, and created a climate that suits them. Transferred to a community like Canada they are likely to ravage it with vulgar pretence and coarse humbug, and destroy the simplicity which was or ought to have been its best possession.

Misfortunes seem to accumulate on the Beaconsfield Ministry in England. The correspondence with France, touching the Anglo-Turkish Convention for the occupation of Cyprus, has been published in a Blue Book, but not before it appeared in the French Yellow Book, at the opening of the Chambers, and it makes very unpleasant revelations to the British public, and once more exposes Lord Salisbury to the imputation of not having been quite straightforward in his statements. One of the arguments by which he defended his performances at Berlin after his return to London was that the acquisition of Cyprus had been accomplished without in the least degree rousing French susceptibilities. It now appears that this was not strictly accurate; that, in order to make the Convention palatable to France, he had to disavow all designs of an exclusive character on Egypt and all intention of effecting a lodgment at any point on the Asiatic coast. Moreover, Mr. Waddington did not accept this disavowal in silence. He seized on it eagerly, and insisted on having it in good set terms in writing, and pointed out its necessity to France as a great Mediterranean Power.

Now, the result of this is that England loses what all the other Powers have tacitly conceded to her, and what the English people have thought she possessed ever since Bonaparte was driven out of the country—the right to occupy Egypt whenever she pleased, and control it in the meantime, as necessary to the security of her communications with India. In fact, Egypt has been for seventy years looked upon as a sort of dependency of the British crown, and the propriety of occupying it was discussed at the outbreak of the Russo-Turkish war in the English papers as a question of domestic administration rather than of foreign policy. The Cyprus affair has, however, changed all this. The jealousy of both France and Italy has, it now appears, been really roused. France claims halves in Egypt, and when the Khedive appointed an English Minister of Finance the other day he was obliged by French importunity to give him a French colleague of Public Works. To have the exciting purchase of the Suez-Canal shares end in this way is sufficiently provoking, but is very characteristic of the Ministry. M. Waddington has also warned them that they must not make a settlement of any kind on the Asiatic coast, so in what way they are to defend their beloved Euphrates Valley from the Russian fiends does not clearly appear. It looks as if, like Mrs. Jamieson's butler, Mr. Mulliner, in 'Cranford,' they would have to wait for "the robbers" to come to Cyprus and fight them there.

The English Cabinet, after what is said to have been a stormy meeting, has yielded to public opinion sufficiently to open Parlia-



ment on December 5. Lord Beaconsfield is said to have opposed this steadily in support of the "Imperial" view, which makes foreign affairs affairs of the Crown, about which Parliament has a right to be informed but not to be consulted, but his colleagues are growing timid with the darkening of the horizon at home and abroad. The war has, however, already begun, and Parliament will simply have to support it. The Amir's resistance is likely to be very feeble, as it was in 1839 and 1842, and he will probably have to submit before long and kiss the rod. The complicated part of the business will be the settlement with him, in which the Russian press declares Russia must have a voice, following the British example about Turkey in Europe.

The operations against Afghanistan cover four degrees of latitude on the northwestern frontier of India, and have as their respective bases Peshawar on the north and Multan on the south. On Tuesday, the 19th, a simultaneous forward movement began of three forces, namely, under General Browne from Fort Jamrud by the Khybar Pass; under General Roberts from Thal by the Kurram Pass; and under General Biddulph from Quetta by the Pishin Valley along the headwaters of the Helmand, the great interior river of Afghanistan, flowing southwesterly into the Lake of Seistan. A distance of some three hundred miles, as the crow flies, separates the right and left wings of the invading troops. Following these in the order above mentioned, it appears that General Browne bombarded Fort Ali Musjid in the Khybar Pass all day Thursday, and was preparing to assault it the next morning, but found that it had been deserted overnight in consequence of having been turned from the rear. Guns and some prisoners fell into his hands, and he continued his advance on Jalalabad, the scene of Sir Robert Sale's heroic resistance in 1841-42. At the last accounts he was half-way there, and was meeting with a friendly reception from the tribes of the district, while the abandonment of Jalalabad was reported. General Roberts, in the Kurram Pass, occupied without resistance Fort Kapion, just over against Thal, the frontier post, and Fort Ahmedshams, five miles further up the pass. General Biddulph marched unopposed from Quetta to Peshin. The only losses reported are in connection with the taking of Ali Musjid, and do not inspire full credence. Various speculations are indulged as to the limits of this winter campaign, but the most sanguine place them at Jalalabad, Fort Kurram, and Candahar; Cabul and Ghazni being reserved for the spring.

The debates in the French Assembly after an election are usually very fierce, owing to the numerous contested cases which come up, and the fiercely partisan spirit which it is customary to bring to their decision. This year, of course, after the desperate struggle in which the Republicans have been engaged, this cause of quarrel is more than usually powerful. Among the candidates whose election was assailed were Paul de Cassagnac, the Imperialist bravo, and M. de Fourtou, the late Minister of the Interior. Cassagnac's speeches usually consist of a succession of "scenes," owing to the interruptions which his scurrility calls forth, but this time the Left agreed to take no notice of him, and he was only called to order by the President, who had to check him frequently for his abuse of Marshal MacMahon, whom it is the Conservative cue just now to treat as a dishonored man. Cassagnac lost his seat, owing to the assistance he received from the Government of the day; and Fourtou has lost his too. The latter, however, like Cassagnac, did not take his expulsion meekly, and, being a more considerable person than Cassagnac, his vituperation found the Left much more sensitive, and they lost all self-control when he permitted himself to say that if he had done his duty they (the Left) would not be in their seats. Further on in the speech Gambetta appears to have so far forgotten himself as to give him the lie direct, and though he retracted the observation when called to order by the President, he did it out of regard to the rules of the Assembly; he did not retract it out of regard for M. de Fourtou. The result has been a challenge and a duel with pistols at the harmless distance of thirty-five paces. Fourtou's imprudent speech about his "duty" towards the Left

seems likely to get him into serious trouble. He is to be investigated and forced to tell what this means, and if it means that a *coup d'état* was in contemplation, who projected it.

M. Gambetta has refused other challenges, among them one from Paul de Cassagnac; but, strange as it seems to us, there are limits to this peaceableness beyond which it is not safe for a Frenchman to go if he wishes to retain his political influence or the respect of society, and Gambetta would probably have been seriously damaged if, after having offered such an insult, he had refused "satisfaction" for it to a man who had filled the position of a minister. Probably nothing did so much to ruin Prince Napoleon with the French public as his refusal to fight the Duc d'Aumale, and his meekness even went far to discredit the dynasty, as showing an undesirable coquetry in the Imperial blood. Whether we shall ever see the duel extinct in French society begins to seem doubtful, because it is doubtful whether the French temperament would allow of that patience or indifference under insults so common in America and England, without great moral debasement. It is a long while since Frenchmen ceased to have that intense concern about their spiritual condition which is still, in spite of the growth of religious indifference, either a marked characteristic or a powerful influence of Anglo-Saxon society. What serves the Frenchman instead of it is an intense self-respect, or self-esteem if any one likes the term better, and the loss of this would very probably wreck his whole moral system, so that it would be a serious matter to have him become hardened to abuse. The political inconveniences of this sensitiveness, however, do not need setting forth.

The Radical Democratic party which has so long ruled Geneva received a crushing defeat at the late election, their revision of the Constitution having previously, on submission to the people, been rejected by a majority of 6,000 out of 11,400 votes. The changes were all in the direction of greater liberty of action for the Grand Council, which is nominally an independent legislature, but in reality has been, under the Democratic régime, a body very like our own Tammany General Committee, controlled by a small clique, which, curiously enough, is by the Genevans called the "Caucus," and is managed by a Boss, this position having been held of late by M. Carteret. He and the Caucus draughted the revised Constitution in profound secrecy, and the public knew nothing of it until it was offered for acceptance.

Carteret, like his predecessor, James Fazy, who has just died, although a Boss and a Radical, is a very different person from our Bosses, and would be considered in New York City politics a ridiculous person, or, as one of the present Park Commissioners said, "one of the high-toned fellows" who have no business meddling in city politics. He is a man of considerable culture, a poet above mediocrity, and has published a volume of fables of some merit. But he is, like his Caucus, a fanatical Jacobin—that is, he believes in the direct government by the people, with as little use of constitutional machinery or restraint as possible; a great deal of popular voting, and then the execution of the popular will thus expressed by an energetic Boss or Cæsar. The amount of authority with which he proposed to arm himself this time was, however, too much for the Genevans. For one thing, he sought to give the Government such control of education that it would have the right to see that the instruction given in private schools was not only sufficient but "moral," and the report of the Grand Council defined "moral" by declaring "immoral" whatever taught "false or dangerous notions," or tended to "denationalize the children" or make them "hostile to the democratic principle." James Fazy, who has just died at the age of 82, was Boss of Geneva for seventeen years, having literally captured the city at the head of an armed mob, which defeated the urban militia. He then went to work in the usual way at "public improvements," and, having spent too much money, was defeated at the polls, and tried armed force again; but this time, under the new Federal Constitution, Federal troops were called in and extinguished him.

## THE ECONOMIC FUTURE OF ENGLAND.

NOTHING could better illustrate the depth of the anxiety under which the public mind in England is laboring than the following appeal to the Ministry, which we find in the last number of the *London Economist*, a paper which seldom indulges in pathos of any sort:

"And now we will venture to make a direct appeal to her Majesty's Government. They know how terrible and how far-reaching the present depression of English trade is. They know how largely this depression is due to the political uncertainties of the time. They know how many men in business have been holding on by the very skin of their teeth in the hope that the Congress of Berlin would bring about a radical and permanent settlement of the Eastern Question. They know that, so far from the settlement there arrived at being either radical or permanent, it has from the first been disregarded by commercial Europe, and has had absolutely no influence in improving the state of trade. If, knowing all this, they go on clinging to the letter of a Treaty from which the spirit has departed, or, rather, into which the spirit has never entered, they will be responsible for all that happens in consequence. To some extent, at all events, it is still in their power to cast aside the illusions under which the Berlin Treaty was drawn up, and to replace the useless provisions then enacted by a settlement more worthy of the name. They can themselves come forward to undo the division of Bulgaria, instead of leaving it to be undone without them. They can themselves take care that the Bulgaria thus constituted shall in some measure be withdrawn from Russian influence, and taught, however late and however imperfectly, to look elsewhere than to Russia for the help which may ensue and develop its autonomy."

The "illusion," or rather the assumption, under which the Berlin Treaty was drawn up was that the Turks are a people who eagerly desire, and are fully competent, to reform their Government; and not only this, but that their Government has been of late and is now so good that any signs of discontent shown by the Christians who live under it are and must be due to the instigation of "Russian agents," and the work of what Lord Beaconsfield calls "the secret societies." It is this assumption which has led him into the monstrous undertaking of regenerating the Mussulman world at a moment when English industry has entered on what will probably prove the most critical period in its existence—a period, too, which may not pass away without working serious modifications both in English Government and society. It would be very rash to predict, however, as some have begun to do, that the crisis will leave England greatly diminished in strength and influence. All comparisons, such as Mr. Gladstone suggested in his late article, between her and Venice or Genoa or Holland leave out of account the fact that none of these states declined until either their material resources had been exhausted or the character of the people had lost its vigor and enterprise, either through the corruption of the Government or through a general break down of morals. Nothing could well seem more hopeless than the condition of the British Empire at the close of the American war, and yet nine years of Pitt prepared it for the astonishing and successful twenty years' struggle with France. But in 1815 the prospect certainly seemed gloomier than ever. The oligarchy which had ruled the country from 1688, and which the shifting of population and growth of industry had made more oligarchical than ever, had loaded it with a prodigious debt of \$4,000,000,000, to be borne by a population of only 11,000,000, whose commerce and industry was still but trifling. The administration, too, was honeycombed with jobbery in all its departments, and the working class was furious with suffering. Out of this slough, which to many of the acutest observers seemed hopeless, the nation rose, during the seventeen years between the close of the war and the passage of the Reform Bill, however, with astonishing rapidity, accomplishing reforms of various kinds, such as, perhaps, have never been effected in any other country without revolution and bloodshed. The recovery could probably not have been effected by the old ruling class; but it was not all luck that created the great middle class which took charge of the national affairs after the passage of the Bill, and which during the succeeding forty years created the prodigious

commercial and manufacturing prosperity which seems to have culminated in 1873. No such class exists in any country through a happy accident. The religion, laws, traditions, manners, and history all combine to produce it and make it ready for its work, and these agencies have certainly not lost their force since 1832. On the contrary, the element of vigor and enterprise and audacity in the national character seems just as strong to-day as ever.

But it must be admitted that the English middle class when they came to the front, and laid the foundation of the huge fabric of industry which just now seems in serious peril, had resources which they seem to have exhausted. It was not simply that they began the race in possession of great coal and iron fields lying side by side. They were the first to take up the steam-engine seriously and turn it to account in railroads and navigation. Down almost to 1860 there was a widespread feeling all over Europe that a steam-engine needed an Englishman to manage it. As soon as the necessity of railroads began to be felt, too, the Continental nations had to order them of Englishmen, and England supplied the iron and machinery for them. Their great command of the means of locomotion gave them the first access to out-of-the-way markets, such as India and China, and the first chance to colonize remote regions, such as Australasia and South Africa. The result has been half a century of steady and unprecedented material growth, accompanied with corresponding improvement in the structure of the Government, which is probably unequalled to-day in the success with which scientific methods are made to work through popular forms.

This brilliant stage has, however, evidently reached its termination. A considerable proportion of the markets by which its prosperity has been maintained—the cotton and iron—is irretrievably lost. The civilized world, for instance, will never again build railroads with the rapidity it has hitherto built them, because the great trunk-lines are made and nothing will hereafter be needed but lateral feeders. Then, too, the improvement in the government on the European continent, and the growth of industrial dexterity and enterprise everywhere, have spread manufactures over a vast area previously devoted in the main to agriculture. So that it is hard to avoid the belief that we are witnessing a serious and permanent check to the material growth of the empire, which will call for a readjustment of its economic and political machinery, the nature of which it would be impossible as yet to forecast, though it would be exceedingly rash to say that the nation is not mentally and morally equal to the task, or that it will all of a sudden resign its position among the leading political and commercial states. Some of the probable features in this readjustment are already foreshadowed. Dense as the population of England now is, and large as is the proportion of it which is withdrawn from agriculture, the profits of farming have been already so seriously affected by the growing competition of Russia and the United States that there are signs of a serious fall in rents, which must generally affect the fortune and habits of the landed aristocracy. According to the latest accounts, there are in some districts signs of a panic among landlords over the difficulty of letting their farms to men with capital enough to work them, and the difficulty of getting even the present holders to keep them. The decline of manufactures and diminished purchasing power of the artisan class must, of course, increase this tendency, and perhaps force landlords, as one paper suggests, either to work their lands themselves, as the Prussian landholders do, or rent them on terms which would virtually give the farmer the fee. How little margin is left to the landlord already may be inferred from the fact that but few estates pay more than two or three per cent. on the purchase money.

The great accumulations of population in the iron and cotton districts must inevitably, if the depression proves permanent, be got rid of by organized emigration, such as gave the Australian Colonies their first start. Public opinion would not tolerate now, as it tolerated half a century ago, the lapse of large bodies of men into pauperism, and the present parliamentary constituency is a much more dangerous one on such subjects than any which has previously



existed in England. That capital would go abroad in greater masses than ever on the heels of population and manufacturers there is little question; and it would go, not to the countries with the finest natural resources, for in these Central Africa is very rich, but to those in which it would enjoy most liberty combined with most security, and in which the population regarded it neither as booty nor as an engine of oppression, and in which legislation was steadiest and justice best administered. That all this might happen without seriously affecting England's position in the world, we think is a reasonable belief. The problems raised in our time by the presence of swarms of laborers engaged in manufacturing, living in dense masses, and dependent for weekly wages on the skill of a few great employers in watching the turns of markets of increasing delicacy and uncertainty, grow more and more serious every day, and threaten to become unmanageable, in the absence of large tracts of easily accessible waste-land. To be relieved of the pressure of these problems, even in a moderate degree, is to any country which does not need a large standing army, a gain in real power both of offence and defence, if it involve no drain upon the character and intellect of the country, such as the emigration of the Huguenots brought on France.

#### STEPS TOWARDS TARIFF REFORM.

IT seems to be understood that no general revision of our tariff will be attempted at the coming short session of Congress. Having been re-elected to the next Congress, Mr. Wood may rest content not to press his bill a second time on the attention of a House that has once so disdainfully rejected the work of his hand, and reserve it as a vantage-ground from which he may carry the battle of tariff reform to a successful issue in the Forty-sixth Congress. In the meantime we submit that the final success of a comprehensive reform would not be jeopardized but rather facilitated if at the approaching session Mr. Wood were to offer a few special measures of relief that deserve to be passed on their own merits. Let a few outlying forts be taken now, and the general assault hereafter will be so much the surer of success.

It is given out that one of these preliminary amendments will be recommended to Congress by the Secretary of the Treasury himself, viz., an alteration in the mode of assessing the duties on sugar; and, judging from the noise that this question has of late created, we cannot doubt that such an amendment is necessary, although neither the parties most interested nor the Government itself appears as yet to have discovered any satisfactory plan for such a reform. We venture to suggest to Mr. Wood's attention another alteration, for the carrying out of which his own bill has already given the right cue, and which we consider no less pressing: we mean the reduction and simplification of the duties on raw wool.

It will be remembered that Mr. Wood's bill proposed to change the present complicated and extravagantly high duties on wool to a simple *ad-valorem* rate of 35 per cent. This proposal met the hearty approbation of a great majority of manufacturers, and did not, so far as we are aware, call forth any great opposition from the wool-growers. The principal objection was that, coupled with a reduction of the duties on woollen goods, the reduction on wool was not sufficient. This could not be urged now, when no reduction on manufactured goods is proposed. At the same time, a reduction of the wool duty to 25 per cent. *ad valorem* we believe would be preferable, since at 35 per cent. the present duty on carpet-wools, which will always form a large portion of our importations, would be increased instead of diminished.

The urgent necessity of such a change must be apparent to every one acquainted with the present condition of our woollen industry, which is second to but few of the main channels in which labor and capital now find employment in our country. But a simple statement of facts will, we think, prove it also to those who are not specially familiar with the question. In an article published a few months ago (*Nation*, No. 692) we discussed the causes of the present industrial depression, and tried to show that the primary

and general cause of this lamentable state of things, extending over both hemispheres, was a great over-production of certain manufactured articles, consequent mainly upon the wonderful improvements in machinery and the application of steam that have been made within the past forty years. Nobody will dispute that this cause has operated largely on our woollen industry. At the same time we cannot ignore the minor causes which have helped on the depression of this industry in particular, and which, while they continue to operate, must retard its recovery. Among these secondary causes our present tariff can be shown to hold a prominent position.

We will not argue the question whether our woollen industry would not be better off to-day if after the war and during the period of inflation a larger portion of our wants in the way of woollen goods had been allowed to come in from abroad, and if no such sudden and extensive increase of machinery as followed the introduction of our present tariff had taken place. Let our present manufacturers and their shareholders answer the question, What portion of the capital invested in woollen-mills during that period can be called productive or even existing at this day? We may even grant that the depreciation of that capital is in a measure counterbalanced by the lesson taught by five years of depression. We have learned how to manufacture cheaply, not only by using shoddy and cotton in place of wool, but also by the honest application of economy and ingenuity. Having learned this most wholesome lesson, we ought to be on the high road to prosperity, but we are not; and why? Because here stands our wool tariff and says, You shall manufacture cheaply, but only such goods as I will permit you to make; you must abandon all goods that require a mixture of foreign wools. So all our mills must rush into the making of such goods as can be made of domestic wools; and as the consumer must be tempted to wear nothing but such goods, down must the prices go, shoddy must come in, and in the general race for cheap goods half our mills must work without profit. The tariff also says, You shall not export a yard of woollens; let South America and other countries supply the Europeans with cheap and free wool and take back their goods; you shall live on the fat of your own country; your economy and ingenuity shall profit you nothing outside of its limits, and if you have too much machinery going you must wait for a corresponding increase of your own population or for a rise in their standard of living.

And where is our wool-grower, who has also been stimulated into over-production by this tariff, whose climate, however, cannot be stimulated, and who can produce but a limited variety of wools? Although our manufacturers have been driven into the all but exclusive use of his product, he finds himself selling his wools these last two or three years at lower prices than he has known under any previous tariff for forty years past. Protection has landed him close to the point where his wool can be exported to Europe with profit, the same as our corn and other agricultural produce. There is one more lesson for him to learn, which is, that the wool-grower cannot prosper while our woollen industry suffers, and the only relief that legislation can give to both is to untie the hands of our industry and allow it to vary its products by giving it cheap wool of all kinds. Our duties have ceased to protect either the manufacturer or the grower, and free wool is what they both want. Without that, foreign markets, near and tempting though they are, will remain for ever closed to our surplus production, and our manufacturers will remain unable to vary their produce and make fine goods cheap as well as coarse goods. But if we cannot get free wool now, we should at least not delay another day the step which Mr. Wood has indicated in his bill, and by reducing our prohibitory duties relieve our manufacturers of a portion of their burden.

#### GOVERNMENT SUPERVISION OF BANKS.

THE failure of the City of Glasgow Bank has brought the peculiar system of banking which prevails in Scotland very sharply to the attention of the British public. The calamity is unprecedented in its severity, but it had its forerunner in the failure of the same institution in 1857, as well as in the heavier failure of the Western

Bank of Scotland in the same year. The principle of unlimited liability is, therefore, perfectly well understood in Great Britain, and the dangers of it to the public and the hardships to individuals are matters of old and familiar experience.

We say the dangers to the public, because in this disaster we see far more to deplore in the shock which has been given to credit, and especially to the confidence heretofore so largely reposed in banking institutions, than in the losses which have engulfed the unwary shareholders. In a commercial country, which depends so much on the maintenance of credit, nothing is so important as that the credit should rest on solid foundations—not merely that the bases of the several transactions should be secure, but that the methods of business should be regular, legitimate, and trustworthy. The credit of an individual and of a bank depends much more on the known fact that the business done is done in a regular way, and with the habitual observance of certain rules of safe conduct, than upon a knowledge of the particular securities which accompany it. The one fact should be certified to the public in all possible ways, the other is in its nature private.

Now, the unlimited liability of shareholders in an institution of credit perverts the condition upon which alone credit should be accorded to it. It becomes a question not of prudent management and legitimate trade, but of the strength of guaranty which is afforded by private wealth not invested in the business. Any considerable guaranty of that sort is not only unnecessary but hurtful. Each piece of paper which a bank discounts ought to rest on the solid foundations of a prudent mercantile transaction. If the private and unpledged wealth of the parties to it is relied on to justify a loan otherwise unjustifiable, it is bad banking. What is true of the bank in its relations to its customers is equally true of the public in its relations to the bank. If it is known to do, or is suspected of doing, bad business, the public has no right to trust it; and any system of laws which encourages it to trust it, is a bad system. The City of Glasgow Bank was known to be doing, and to have been doing for years past, a wholly illegitimate and very risky business, and yet the banks and discount houses and bill-brokers of London trusted it to the very last, because it had wealthy shareholders standing behind it who were able to make good any ultimate loss. Such a state of things was to the last degree demoralizing to credit, and a public wrong referable to legislation.

The liability of bank shareholders should be limited, not necessarily to the paid-up value of their shares, but to some moderate and known sums beyond. With this limitation there should be a great measure of publicity required as to the bank's condition, not merely at stated intervals but all the time; and the Government, as the guardian of the public welfare, should see to it that the requisite publications are made, and certify that the facts published are true. This is a perfectly familiar American doctrine. Corporations are here regarded as creatures of the State which gives them being. The right of public supervision runs with that portion of the sovereignty which is parted with by a grant of the franchise. The right merely to aggregate capital with limited liability draws after it the obligation to a certain publicity on the part of the corporation, and the duty of a certain oversight and control on the part of the State. These correlative obligations differ somewhat according to the nature of the business to which they are applied, but they are never absent so long as the corporate franchise is exercised.

Great Britain has recognized this principle to a degree, but in banking corporations to a far smaller degree than the public safety calls for. It has not hesitated to interfere with the employment of children in mines and factories, but it does hesitate to interfere for the protection of people equally helpless in their dealings with monetary institutions. An overweening respect for the rights of individuals as against the rights of the public, and the national love of privacy and jealousy of intrusion, have converted the banking houses of Great Britain into those castles which Englishmen are so proud of defending; and they sometimes end in converting the managers and directors into mediæval barons and freebooters. The subject of Government supervision has been lately revived

in the English newspapers, but, beyond the requirement of more frequent and full statements of condition, it seems to meet with no favor at the hands of the press or the business public. A correspondent of the *Moniteur des Intérêts Matériels* of Brussels says that "this mixing up of Government in business affairs is repugnant alike to the good sense and to the peculiar temperament of the English people." The *Times*, in a reply to a correspondent, is quoted as saying that "it would be altogether wrong to embarrass the agents of the Government with any responsibility whatever in banking business. No system of Governmental supervision in the world could prevent fraud, and the best system of that sort might even serve as a protecting mantle for it." But while it rejects the imposition of any responsibility in connection with banking institutions upon the direct agents of the Government, it proposes to employ public accountants, and to punish them as criminals if the accounts they certify should prove to be incorrect.

We undertake to say that the remedy proposed by the *Times*—more full and frequent publications, certified by public auditors—will never reach the seat of the disease if, as we understand it, the duty of the auditor is to be confined to an examination into the books of account and records only, and if they do not rigidly examine the cash, business paper, securities, and investments which constitute the assets. The figures mean nothing; they may present a fair exterior and be unimpeachably true, and yet all behind them may be false and rotten. Englishmen affect to say that public officers can know nothing of the quality of the loans and securities in which the bank invests its funds. The assumption is unsound in principle and untrue in fact. Intelligent experts (and public examiners very soon become experts) are perfectly competent to judge, first, whether the business is regularly conducted, whether the paper taken is in proper form; whether its length is within the limits of a judicious credit; whether it is live paper and not overdue; whether on its face it seems to represent mercantile transactions. They may, it is true, be deceived in these matters; but their mistakes can hardly be worse than that of the London and Westminster, and other very experienced banks in London, in the Collicie cases. They can also ascertain whether the custodians of the cash have given responsible bonds, and whether the officers and directors are large borrowers. They may, in the second place, acquire great familiarity with the standing of mercantile houses and individuals, and come to know far more than the officers of any one bank can know of the extent of their transactions, since they see the portfolios of many institutions, while, as a rule, bank officers know nothing of what is being done by their neighbors. We could name instances in which bank examiners distrusted the solvency of parties long before any trouble was suspected by the banks discounting their paper. A large portion of bank funds is loaned on collaterals of public and corporate stocks and bonds. Examiners are as competent to judge of the goodness of those collaterals as any merchant or bank director can be. Does the London *Times* suppose that any examiner appointed by the British Government would have failed to know the worthlessness of the American and Australian securities, and of the past-due and dishonored, or frequently renewed, individual paper which figured as property in the assets of the City of Glasgow Bank; or that he would have hesitated to expose to the proper authorities the fact that millions had been loaned to a single party whose credit did not entitle him to as many thousands?

The best evidence that public examiners are competent to fulfil all these duties is found in the fact, of which there is not the least doubt in America, that under a rigid system of examination banks seldom fail unless in seasons of general crisis, and that their failures rarely touch either bill-holders or depositors. The mere consciousness of supervision and the fear of a sudden exposure keep banks from falling into loose and irregular methods of business, and still more from the perpetration of actual frauds. If the prejudice which exists in England against Governmental interference in private business can be so far overcome as to give a system of official supervision a fair trial, the objections now made against it



will fade away, and the banks themselves will court the investigation which certifies to the world their title to public confidence.

# THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—XV.

THE UNITED STATES FINE-ART EXHIBIT.

PARIS, September, 1878.\*

AFTER several letters devoted to other parts of the Exhibition than the art galleries, and on returning to them for farther enquiry into the tendencies of modern fine art, I am inclined to speak of the American pictures first, because a much more cheerful view of them is possible than has been taken in some instances. It all depends upon the point of view. Whether one is disappointed or not depends so largely upon what one has expected! No doubt a better show could have been made had our blessed Congress been a different sort of Congress. No doubt, with more time allowed for the task, the "Advisory Committee on Art in New York" could have brought together a larger and somewhat better collection of the works of art owned in American cities. But delay in acting and half-hearted action at last, on the part of Congress, is just one of those things which everybody ought to have been prepared for, and in spite of it the exhibit is a success. It is better than people here, Frenchmen or American residents, were prepared to see it. It will have this result, that something good will be looked for at our hands at the next International Exhibition.

In the first place, the collection is not so very small. There are 165 numbers in the catalogue, and, as all but fifteen are paintings and drawings, it appears that the American show of these art-works is as large in comparison with those of other nations as we have any right to expect. Austria sends 180 paintings and drawings; Austria and Hungary together, 250. Italy sends 220 paintings and drawings; Sweden and Norway together, Spain, Russia, Switzerland, Holland, each a smaller number than the United States. And, pray, why should the United States pretend to a better art-showing than Spain or Russia? Has the Government done anything to encourage art? Has there been a decided movement that way among the people at any time? Is there any atmosphere in America, outside of a very few private houses, in which art would be likely to flourish? Is it not too well known that the Museum in your city languishes for want of the means which your citizens might so easily supply, and which they are yearly called upon to supply, in vain? Is it not notorious that money can be got in abundance for charity, for social movements of various sorts, for what is assumed to be religion, for founding small colleges which will bear the founders' names to a brief posterity, but only with great difficulty for the true higher education, literary or artistic or scientific? If Americans turn their attention at all toward the practice of fine art, it must be from a very decided leaning that way; if they succeed at all it must be from real ability. The national exhibit to which ours may best be compared is that of Germany, which also hesitated about exhibiting, and has no exhibit except that of the fine arts; and that was an eleventh-hour thought, I believe. Germany has art-schools and traditions, and professed artists in hundreds more than America has, and these advantages ought to counterbalance that natural reluctance to exhibit in a capital so lately hostile which doubtless kept many Germans from sending their works to Paris. She exhibits 159 oil-paintings and no drawings at all, as against 127 oil-paintings and 23 drawings from the United States.

When we come to consider, in the second place, the value and importance of the works exhibited, I declare I cannot admit that this American collection is inferior in average merit; comparisons are odious, but sometimes one must put up with the odium, and things are sent to Paris for the sake of comparison. There is no figure work in the American exhibition so scientific and masterly as that of the younger Kaulbach, but there is no landscape painting in the German gallery that can compare with La Farge's picture; and in the great mass of miscellaneous pictures of modern subjects the American work compares well in technical skill and in artistic qualities, as well as in originality of conception, with the German. In general, no doubt there is a greater proportion of skilled handiwork in the German gallery, but this is more than compensated by the far greater variety, the superior independence, freedom, and play of mind seen in the best forty or fifty of the American pictures. This is not saying that American art is on the whole the equal of German art. America shows no sculpture, no engraving on metal, no

etching, no architectural designs, and has little to show. Probably in Germany there are very many more paintings about as good as those sent to Paris than there are pictures in America, or painted by American artists anywhere resident, equal to those in our gallery. America has no large-scale, monumental painting, while Germany has a great deal, of one kind and another. We are now concerned with the outlook only, the prospects for the future, the evidences of ability, and the tendencies, and with these as chiefly seen in this Paris Exhibition.

It is curiously characteristic of the time and the people that in the American gallery there is not one historical picture, whether in the usual sense "historical" of the remoter past or even representing a scene in recent American history. There is not one scene from the civil war, not one from American story, military or ceremonial, not one from European or other history, ancient or modern. Nor is there a single picture of tragic or solemn subject, except, perhaps, Mr. Vedder's "Sibyl." It may be urged that Mr. Bridgman's "Funeral of a Mummy on the Nile" is both historical and solemn. Well, I think not. Mr. Bridgman's picture is full of merits of its own; it has been honored with a medal, it appears, and no doubt deservedly; but it shares with the chief pictures of Mr. Bridgman's master, Gérôme, the quality of being archaeological and, so to speak, studied up; full of elaborated details of dress, ornament, and architecture, to the destruction of solemnity and the disappearance of historical painting in "restoration." The immense difficulty of the task undertaken is evident—is not disputed; whether art ought to be hampered with such difficulties is the question. Contemporary scenes and events are the more obviously fit material for painting. Mr. C. C. Coleman's "Venice" is a picture which almost contradicts the statement above that there is no historical painting in the American gallery. A black steamship lies at anchor on the glassy waters of the lagoon; beyond is seen the well-known sea-front of the Queen of Cities, the palaces and towers gleaming with a pale light through a somewhat hazy atmosphere, and at the distance of a mile or two from the spectator; over all bends a lovely mottled sky. "Venice, Ancient and Modern," says the catalogue. The painter's idea is obvious: here is the modern (and future) seaport, and the bustle of modern commerce, embodied in this black hull and funnel and tapering spars; beyond, forming a background to the thoughtless, restless, ignoble life of the day, is the stately and beautiful past. What remains of the past, at least, is stately and beautiful; how will it be with the remnant of that which is now the present and will soon be the past? Three hundred years hence the sky and the water will be as beautiful as now, and the Ducal Palace and its neighbors will be still strong and fresh, if not wilfully destroyed; but what of the work of to-day will be fit to keep so long! Nothing. Our successes will be surpassed and forgotten, even as this steamer will be replaced by vessels in every way better. And so much of our thought as is permanent in character and cannot be thought over again and better thought in the future is embodied in books we hardly think of now, and certainly not in the visible and lasting forms of architecture. Mr. Coleman's picture may remain, and tell the people of the twenty-second century how we of the nineteenth dreamed over the architecture which (they will be ready enough to say) we could not hope to rival.

Mr. Coleman has another picture here—a decorative panel; a flowering branch seen relieved against a background of embroidered Eastern muslin, an effective composition and extraordinarily well painted. A similar picture by this artist in the Salon of this year was perhaps even more beautiful. It would appear that he has given peculiar attention to this matter of wall-decoration; these panels are peculiarly well adapted to their purpose; it is rare to see such charming work of the kind—lovely painting of bronze vase and stuffs, and not less lovely painting of fresh blossoms, without relief or projection, such as might be thought foreign to the idea of wall-decoration.

Mr. Dana's large sea-picture, a rolling, weltering sea of the calm weather following a storm: huge, shapeless waves without the "white caps," or the swift life of the sea driven by a gale—"the tumbling ruins of the ocean" black under the moonlight—has received one of the four prizes awarded to the American fine-art exhibit. It is a remarkable work in many ways, but I prefer the manly little picture, by the same artist, called "A Squall," with its rapidly-coming black cloud, and the wind just beginning to annoy the sea-weed gatherers. The view on the Marne, by Mr. F. D. Williams, is a very charming landscape. Mr. Dubois's "Autumn" is fine, with its strong, well-rooted trees in their brown dress. The "Approach to Venice," by Mr. W. G. Bunce, is worthy to hang beside Mr. Coleman's picture of similar subject. It is a pleasant grey landscape which is exhibited by Mr. W. B. Jones, under the name "Return of the

\* Letters from our special correspondent at Paris for which we could not find space before the close of the Exhibition will be printed from time to time with the above date.—ED. NATION.

Cows, Brittany." Mr. Vedder exhibits three pictures, each of individual merit and value, but as your correspondent, "W. J. S.," has described these at length, I refrain, remarking only that this ascription of imaginative power in treatment of subject is one which ought to be sparingly rendered; the charm of Vedder's pictures is in their purely artistic character. The brown hares creeping and nestling about the young Marsyas are wonderful, and the insight into the nature of the creatures is imaginative, if you please, and that in a strong, manly, unaffected fashion. The picture is admirable, too, with the strange lights on the snow, and the near trees, the animals and the satyr himself relieved against it.

All these painters who have been named are resident abroad. Some of them have lived abroad many years without ever returning to America, or without returning for more than a brief visit. Their works are seldom seen in the exhibitions in New York or the other American cities: many of them are sold in Europe and remain there, for there are American painters in Europe whose chief "patrons" are in Europe also. The appearance in this gallery of the works of these able and highly-trained artists is the cause of the complaints that have been made in the United States of the arrangement. It is not strange that astonishment should be caused by the giving up so much of "the line" to the works of men almost unknown at home; but, on the other hand, it is certainly not strange that the best pictures should come from the men who live in Paris or in Rome. They live in Paris and in Rome precisely for the reason that they can paint better and more easily there, surrounded by great works of the past, forming part of a community in which fine art is a chief object and interest of life, with all the technical appliances within easy reach.

But, after all, there are good things that have come from America. Mention has already been made of Mr. La Farge's landscape, "Paradise Valley, Newport." It is a noble landscape; one can leave it and walk directly to any landscape in any gallery and return, and it is still strong and pure. It has been exhibited in New York, and, as it belongs to a Boston lady, no doubt it has been and will be again exhibited in Boston too; it cannot be seen too much. There is no space in which to attempt analysis or description. It has received one of the four prizes. Mr. R. Swain Gifford is on the road to great eminence; nothing is more calm and dignified than his work; the little oil-painting and the three water-colors he sends are all admirable, and excite but one feeling that is not pleasure—a feeling that perhaps there is to be found in them a certain uniformity of treatment. The best Eastman Johnson that ever was painted, no doubt, is "The Corn-Husking," with all of Mr. Johnson's vigor of conception and greater technical skill than one expects to see. The three little studies by Mr. Homer are characteristic works of a man whose every sketch and scrawl leads us to expect a wonderful picture by and by. Mr. Samuel Colman's "Emigrant Train Crossing a Ford," though perhaps not equal to his best pictures, is lovely in color. Mr. C. H. Miller sends a landscape rather larger than most (for the American pictures run small, it seems), "Oaks at Creedmoor, L. I.," it is a strong picture, exceedingly fine in its general decorative effect.

In mentioning these few pictures there has been no conscious abandonment of a standard of choice as high as that which would be applied to any of the galleries, except always the French, in which the number of works is so great as to compel a still more careful selection. Judgment and perfect independence must have gone to the selection to make the average so good. The only fault which, as it is urged, sounds formidable, is that the pictures chosen are not "national," not American enough. But that is the case not with the Belgian only, but with pretty much all the national exhibits. What pictures except the British are free, or even more free than ours, from this overmastering French influence? How far the British pictures are the better for their independence is an interesting question to which we may come. It is not important that our painters should seek to be national, or that they should seek to resist foreign influences. It is the important thing that they should seek to be skilful in work and simple in design; nationalism will come as imagination, as invention, as power, as "genius" will come, of itself, in its own good time.

R. S.

## Correspondence.

### THE INDIAN QUESTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of the 21st inst. you say "that Congress will be urged with unusual vigor at the next session to transfer the care of the

Indians to the War Department." This transfer, if made, would probably be beneficial in two respects: Firstly. The army officers would be required to superintend the Indians near the several military posts, thus superseding a like number of Indian agents. Secondly. The War Department, through its Commissary-General, could purchase the treaty supplies for the Indians far better than the Interior Department through civilians. As far as the change operated, the Indians would have better agents and be better supplied. But this would fail to reach the main difficulty, which is the total failure of the present system. The Secretary of the Interior would give as intelligent attention to the affairs of the Indians as the Secretary of War, under a system like the present. Each of these secretaries has quite as many imperative duties as he can perform, and very little attention can be expected from either to the affairs of the Indians.

What is now needed is a *Department of Indian Affairs*, with a cabinet officer at its head, and a law of Congress instituting a new system of management of the affairs of the Indian tribes. It is not certain that a new department of the Government and a new system of measures can remedy the enormous evils which now environ the Indian tribes. But the creation of such a department by Congress is the best and the last feasible chance the American people can offer for the solution of the Indian problem. The need of some movement radical in character, and supported with sufficient power, is evident to all. The country is ready for such a movement, and, as I believe, would give it a cordial welcome.

Although there are but about four hundred thousand Indians in the United States, an insignificant number of people in the aggregate, they are scattered over the Territories, where they meet our people at numerous points; and they are also found in places in several of the States. They, and their posterity, will live in our midst for centuries to come, because Indian arts for the maintenance of life are far more persistent and effective than we are disposed to credit. The Indian tribes hold a more important position in their relations to us than their numbers would imply. It is for the reason that they form no part of our social and political system, are not a portion of our people, and stand without the pale of the Government. But as the aborigines of the country and its ancient proprietors they stand to us in a special relation—a relation in some respects awful to contemplate. We are responsible for them before mankind if we do not perform our duty towards them intelligently, and as it becomes the superior race.

Two instrumentalities may be named which have at least the promise of good. One is the establishment of a factory system for such tribes as have been long accustomed to settled life on reservations. (See an article in the *Nation* for July 27, 1876, page 58, in which I gave some account of such a system.) This would stimulate and reward their industry, which is never wanting among Indian women. In fact, the women would support their husbands and children among all the reservation tribes if their labor were encouraged and rewarded; but the experiment of Mr. Church at the outlet of Lake Superior, referred to in that article, shows that the men also will work if a fair opportunity is given them. The second instrumentality is a pastoral system for the Indians of the Plains. This is the more important of the two, because it would reach and benefit those tribes among whom disturbances are constantly arising, and who are putting our Government annually to millions of expense to hold them in check.

We have overlooked the fact that the principal Indian tribes have passed by natural development out of the condition of savages into that of barbarians. In relative progress they are now precisely where our own barbarous ancestors were when, by the domestication of animals, they passed from a similar into a higher condition of barbarism, though still two ethnical periods below civilization. Their great progress commenced, as we have reason to suppose, when they gained, through flocks and herds of domestic animals, a permanent meat and milk subsistence. We wonder that our Indians cannot civilize; but how could they, any more than our own remote barbarous ancestors, jump ethnical periods? They have the skulls and brains of barbarians, and must grow towards civilization as all mankind have done who attained to it by a progressive experience.

The next condition into which the Indian tribes would naturally advance is the pastoral. They have learned unassisted to raise horses in herds, and thus have become partially pastoral. They can be taught to raise domestic cattle in herds. Here the Government should help them by purchasing herds of cattle for them, and by sending herdsmen to take care of them until they can be made to see that the natural increase will afford them an abundant meat and milk subsistence. The Government should own the cattle until this fact is demonstrated to them. This will



solve the problem and recast the destiny of the Indian tribes. In time they will raise cattle in millions on the great plains as buffaloes have raised themselves in millions on the same plains. The Indian tribes would thus become contented, prosperous, and happy, and make a proper use of regions of no present use or value to our people.

As an economic question we have a direct interest in this matter ourselves. If innumerable herds of domestic animals are created on the vast central Plains they will become a source of meat supply for the entire country east of the Mississippi. It will cost the Government but a small part of the sum annually expended upon the Indians to establish this great work, with every assurance that it would solve the Indian problem by raising the Indian tribes of the Plains into a condition of prosperity, not to say of wealth, and by making them an ultimate source of benefit to the country instead of the plague into which they are rapidly degenerating.

I need not take the time of the reader to amplify these propositions. The present system has failed completely, and has become discreditable to the country. Any new movement having a fair promise of success will be received with favor, because the American people would be glad to see our Indian affairs in a more reputable condition. The transfer of the Indian Bureau to the War Department will not relieve the difficulty, although it might work a limited amount of benefit. The new Department of Indian Affairs might be created for twenty-five years. Within that time it could prove itself, and it would save the national Treasury many times the increased expense of the department.

Yours truly,

LEWIS H. MORGAN.

ROCHESTER, NOV. 22, 1878.

## THE FISHERIES AWARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You say with truth that as the case stood there was no honorable way of refusing to comply with the Fisheries Award, and all who have a regard for the reputation of the Republic will rejoice that the money has been paid. But it is to be hoped that the day is not very distant when there will be an end of these absurd and humiliating fines imposed by a distant Power upon the inhabitants of this continent for the use of its natural franchises, and when this system of mutual exclusion, with all its waste and bitterness, will give place to commercial union. The northern and southern sections of the continent are the commercial complements of each other. Nature has joined them: an evil policy keeps them asunder.

We pour derision on the popes of old for presuming, by their ecclesiastical authority, to mete out this hemisphere and set bounds beyond which enterprise and colonization were not to pass. Our posterity will perhaps look with the same feeling upon the pretension of a European Government to draw a line, for its political purposes, across this continent, and to say that the people of the two portions shall not enjoy their commercial advantages in common.

A few years of commercial union would give Canada far more than she receives under the Fisheries Award, and with equal advantage, instead of loss, to you.

Yours faithfully,

GOLDWIN SMITH.

TORONTO, NOV. 23.

## A RETURNING BOARD ABOLISHED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of November 14, 1878, in speaking of Returning Boards in the Southern States, you say: "We have heard of no legislation changing their character or regulating their duties. . . ." In this State, at the first session of the Nicholls Legislature, the law creating the Returning Board was repealed and a new election law passed, by which the votes are counted as cast, and promulgated in like manner. The votes actually cast stand as the *prima-facie* result until overthrown by contest in the courts.—I have the honor to be, very respectfully,

Your obedient servant,

E. D. W.

NEW ORLEANS, November 21, 1878.

## Notes.

WE have received from Little, Brown & Co., Boston, 'Minor Poems, by Percy Bysshe Shelley,' and it has the distinction of being the first trustworthy edition of the poems ever printed in this country. It follows the text of Mr. H. Buxton Forman's careful London edition of 1876, but it has omitted his annotations, which are necessary in more than

one case for the elucidation of lines which left alone are unintelligible. The volume contains the most valuable of the shorter poems, but we wonder at the omission of the choruses of the 'Prometheus Unbound,' which would certainly bear printing separately as well as the chorus given from 'Hellas,' and which are among Shelley's finest lyrical works.—R. Worthington has in press 'Leisure-Time Studies,' chiefly biographical, by Andrew Wilson, Ph.D.—Marion Harland, whose 'Breakfast, Luncheon, and Tea' left an obvious gap in domestic convenience, has now filled it with 'A Dinner Year-Book' (Charles Scribner's Sons), of which it would be safe to predicate an excellence equal to that of the former well-approved work. We believe that Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney's 'Just How' (Houghton, Osgood & Co.) will also recommend itself to housekeepers of much or little experience.—The Smithsonian Report for 1877 has appeared, and for the last time bears the honored name of Joseph Henry. The usual interesting survey of the Institution's activity is supplemented by appendixes of translations and original papers in regard to color-blindness, American archaeology (covering a wide range), the history and climate of New Mexico, meteorology, etc.—We have received Lieut. George M. Wheeler's annual report of his Survey for 1877, with accompanying topographical atlas sheets. From a picturesque point of view the most interesting feature of the season's work was that in the vicinity of Lake Tahoe, which Lieut. Wheeler regrets cannot revert to the Government as a perpetual tourists' reserve. He calls attention to the delay in making preparations for each expedition in consequence of the appropriation being voted with the regularly postponed and belated "Sundry Civil Bill." He suggests its transfer to the more punctual Army Bill.—The Yellow-Fever Relief Commission invite the sending of official and unofficial data in regard to the benevolent work connected with the recent epidemic to Dr. John M. Woodworth, P.O. box 33, Washington, D.C., who is to edit their report.—The thirteenth of *Nature's* "scientific worthies," portrayed by pen and by the admirable graver of Jeens in the number for October 31, is Sir George Biddell Airy. The shrewd and kindly face of the Astronomer-Royal is well interpreted by the story of his notable career.—The *Geographical Magazine*, which gave in its October number a general map of Afghanistan and the N. W. frontier of India, has in its November issue a much better executed map of the northerly seat of war—that is, of the strip of territory stretching from Attek on the Indus to Bamian on the Kunduz, and including from north to south the Abkhana, Kurram, and intervening passes (N. lat. 33°-35°, E. long. 68°-72°30'). This number of the magazine is rendered more attractive than usual to the general reader by two light sketches of travel, "St. Germain-en-Laye" and "Palermo."—The event has at last overtaken the rumors of former years of the death of Dr. Johann Georg Kohl, the city librarian of Bremen, who passed away on October 28, at the age of seventy. His memory as a traveller and antiquary is ensured by his numerous and in their day important works. He spent the years 1854-58 in this country.

—The excellent series of book-lists which the Dutch booksellers have long had has been continued by a classed index to the publications of the last twenty-five years, compiled by B. v. d. Meulen. Some interesting statistics are brought out by this subject-arrangement of titles. In the quarter of a century the Dutch Netherlands have absorbed 8,500 theological works, while commerce, the very foundation of their state, has had but 900; 800 original and 1,700 translated novels have been issued, and no doubt read, while the Fine Arts, in which the country was once so famous, have brought forth less than 9 works each year. Various curious mistakes in classification have been noticed by the Dutch critics, of the kind which are inevitable in a list made up from titles alone, without sight of the books. The 'Gospel according to the Spirits' of Allan Kardec, the very hierophant of Spiritualism, appears under Systematic Theology; Pimantel on Probabilities under Insurance; Krummacher's Sermons under Exegetic Theology; and Erasmus's 'Praise of Folly' twice, once under Greek Classics, once under Protestant Dogmatic Theology, and both times, of course, wrongly.

—The uniform excellence of the successive parts of Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians' (Macmillan) is only one of the many signs of the great advance which England has in recent years made in musical culture. Mr. John Hullah has been commissioned to investigate the methods of musical instruction in the public schools on the Continent, and his report is looked forward to eagerly. Meanwhile the general interest in this matter is well shown by a series of articles and letters on musical education which have appeared in recent numbers of the *Times* and other London papers. The facts brought to light by this discussion

reveal a by no means favorable state of affairs; but here, as elsewhere, the consciousness of one's own shortcomings will be found the first and most important step towards progress. The English still reveal their imperfect musical taste by their great delight in displays of technical skill, especially vocal, and by their predilection for the vast and gigantic, which is as much out of place in the formation of choruses and orchestras as it is justifiable in certain species of architecture. The efforts made some thirty years ago to effect a change for the better by invoking the aid of the public schools are also now shown to have been misdirected and more or less fruitless, from want of proper supervision. Mr. Hullah has pointed out that in most of the schools singing is now taught by rote, or by ear, instead of by note, a system which he justly pronounces a "mere sham" from a musical point of view. This statement, coupled with the knowledge that Parliament makes an annual grant of over £100,000 for teaching singing in public schools, has aroused the indignation of many Englishmen, who now insist that the money should be devoted to some other use. Sir George Bowyer proposes that, instead of indiscriminately teaching all the pupils in public schools to sing, instruction should be given to limited classes only, consisting of those pupils who are endowed with good musical voices and ears. This is a truly remarkable proposition. The object of musical instruction in public schools is not to train talented pupils for the operatic stage or the concert hall, but to develop a taste for music in all those who do not possess it, and thus to bring the masses under the refining influence of the art. The remarkable musical superiority of the Germans is to a great extent due to the excellent training which their public schools give them from the earliest age, and to the accumulated effects of hereditary transmission resulting from this. If the English ever wish to compete with them they must not throw over the whole system because at first great mistakes are made in its application. Sir George Bowyer thinks that the English climate offers an insuperable difficulty to the general development of musical voices; but here he is again mistaken. The climate of Berlin is no more favorable to the voice than that of London; yet it is at Berlin that the finest choruses in the world are nowadays to be heard, not merely in regard to excellent training, but also as regards sensuous beauty of tone. Careful vocal training, in fact, renders the voice less dependent on climatic influences, and therefore has not only an artistic but also a hygienic value. Moreover, the number of those who are physically incapable of learning music is not so great, either in England or in America, as is commonly supposed. Dr. Lowell Mason reported but a small percentage of such cases, and careful examination would perhaps show that all such individuals are afflicted with what Mr. Grant Allen has called note-deafness—an imperfection in the nervous apparatus of the ear analogous to color-blindness, which is supposed to be due to one of the three sets of retinal nerve-fibres having lost its sensibility.

—The *Atlantic* for December is chiefly notable for the continuation of the more brilliant articles from the last number. Prof. Norton concludes his history of St. Mary of the Flower, devoting his attention mainly to the building of the Dome by Brunelleschi; there are several additional chapters of Mr. Howells's "The Lady of the Aroostook," as charming as the opening ones; and the second paper by Mr. Brooks Adams on "Oppressive Taxation and its Remedy" pleads for the non-taxation of mortgages and of foreign stocks and for an appeal to a jury in the case of excessive valuation of real estate. He comments severely on some past and proposed expenditures by the city of Boston, makes some striking contrasts of the expenditures by the city with those of Harvard College, and shows some practical modes of retrenchment and of equitable taxation. The article upon "Three Typical Workingmen" is not so striking as the previous contributions by this writer, and nearly every one of experience, probably, can parallel the types he has described. The review of recent novels is excellent, as is also the article, or rather eulogy, on "Sheridan at Winchester." Mr. Richard Grant White continues a recent much-criticised article on "The Nature of Music," and offers further evidence and argument in support of his theory that appreciation of music is conditioned on physical structure, and that music has itself no moral or intellectual content. Other articles are, one which argues that hard times result from our not spending our money but foolishly saving it, one on the Pictures at the Exposition at Paris, and a story by J. W. DeForest. The Contributor's Club is entertaining but brief, and the poetry of average merit.

—The Woodruff expedition has just added another to its long list of prospectuses for its scientific voyage around the world, the present one being more elaborate than any which have preceded it, and fixing the 8th of May next as the date of sailing. Assuming the statement con-

tained in this document to be perfectly correct, the managers have "purchased" a first-class steamship, the *General Weeder*, from the North German Lloyd Steamship Company, and now require only to find 250 young men ready and willing to pay \$2,500 apiece, to make the voyage a success. A glowing account of the natural wonders to be visited occupies eight pages of the pamphlet, and will no doubt fill many a youthful mind with a desire to become a member of this wonderful company. A judicious silence is observed respecting the surroundings of life on board the ship at sea. If this expedition pretended to be nothing more than what it is, a pleasure trip around the world with a great number of accessories designed to make it as improving to the mind as such a trip can be, there would be little to be said against it. The minds of the young are improved by travel, and whether it is safe to turn a young man loose in a foreign city with 200 companions after the *envoi* of a long voyage is a question which every parent must decide for himself. But not satisfied with this, the expedition makes pretensions of a kind which it is difficult to characterize properly. The sending of these young men round the world purports to be an enterprise of great national importance, worthy of encouragement from the Government and scientific institutions, and affording a rare opportunity for students of science to pursue investigation under competent instructors. It is darkly hinted that the education which a young man can get in our home institutions has many serious defects:

"The powers and faculties are crushed under a mass of merely memorized fact and theory, and at the end of his educational course the young man finds himself unfitted for the work of the actual world, and has to unlearn and learn again before he can find the path to success." "Young men enter life from their course of study with sufficient theoretical knowledge, the practical application of which has to come with many mistakes and a long course of experimental inefficiency."

All this may be true, but it is difficult to regard the idea that the evil is to be remedied by putting the student and professor on board a ship and starting them around the world, in any other light than that of a joke. Yet the sole inducement which the expedition offers to parents, beyond the pleasure trip, is the opportunity which life on board a sea-going vessel offers of avoiding the defects of education on shore. That such an argument should be seriously put forth ought to subject the managers to the ridicule of the community. Every one knows that the facilities for and inducements to study while in the crowded cabin of a ship are of the worst possible class, and that it would be difficult to find a place where close study would be pursued at a greater disadvantage.

—Cassell, Petter & Galpin have issued vol. vi. of Mr. Edward Walford's "Old and New London," thus completing the work. The present volume deals with the southern suburbs, and, like its predecessors, it is an industrious compilation from many sources, containing much that is curious if not rare, and very plentifully illustrated with copies of old prints and other authentic pictures of buildings and quarters now removed or transformed, with portraits of eminent personages, etc. Beginning with Southwark, to which nearly a fifth of the book is devoted, we have the history of Barclay's Brewery, of course with the "incident Haynau," as they would say in France, but also with an account of the earlier owner Thrale, and of his wife, the friend of Dr. Johnson. The Doctor, as one of the executors, was present at the sale which transferred the property to David Barclay, and it was on this occasion that he used the famous expression, "Sir, we are not here to sell a parcel of boilers and vats, but the potentiality of growing rich beyond the dreams of avarice." It is thought that the brewery covers part of the site of the Globe Theatre, about which Mr. Walford presently has something to say. Bermondsey follows Southwark, and Rotherhite next succeeds, with its Thames Tunnel; then Deptford, with its docks, the home of Evelyn, the house of Czar Peter during his ship-building apprenticeship, etc.; then Greenwich, with its Hospital and Observatory; then Blackheath and all the petty suburbs—Cumberwell, which introduces Tom Hood; Sydenham, of Crystal-Palace fame; St. George's Fields, where the Gordon riots occurred and Bedlam is situated; Blackfriars' Road, with the Surrey Theatre; Lambeth, with Astley's (about which there are ten pages of highly amusing matter, with divers cuts), the Doultons' pottery, Lambeth Palace and the Lollards' Tower, etc.; Vauxhall, whose gardens are described minutely and at length; Chiswick, with Hogarth's house, and so *ad finem*. A grand index embraces the whole work. Taken by itself this sixth volume may be called complete, and for desultory reading may be recommended as highly interesting, to say the least. A few plans of the suburbs mentioned accompany the text; but for subscribers the publishers will issue three large maps of London in 1590, 1720, and at the present day, at a very moderate price.



—Prof. Eiríkr Magnússon, of Cambridge University, England, well known as a co-laborer with the poet William Morris and with George Powell in their English translations of Icelandic sagas and folk-lore, has recently returned from the Scandinavian countries and Finland, whither he was sent by the Cambridge University to gather materials for a proper classification of the runic calendars ("primstaves"). His journey has been a very successful one, and he has reaped a plentiful harvest. He has brought back photographs of two hundred and sixty-five wooden, horn, and bone runestaves. By his investigations he has been enabled to classify the runic calendars by distinct markings into six separate groups—a result that will have an important bearing on the study of the primitive literature of the Teutons. 1. The Norwegian primstave (without runes), long supposed to have originated in that country, Eiríkr Magnússon shows to have been imported from England. 2. The Danish (with runes) distinguishes itself from the Swedish by the form of the runic characters and the type of emblems by which saints' days and festivals are marked. 3. The Swedish (with runes) is characterized by a peculiar type of runic characters and emblems, and the staves also are frequently furnished with the so-called Peter's Problem—a formula which shows how fifteen Christians and fifteen Jews can be so arranged that, when every ninth one is taken to save a sinking ship in a storm, the lot of being thrown overboard always falls to a Jew, and so the Christians are all preserved. 4. The Finnish is characterized by the irregularity of the runes and by exceedingly ornamental emblems, of many of which the significance is not known. 5. The Lapponian is usually made in the form of a book, fashioned from bone or horn. The ornamentation and the emblems are odd, but usually very artistic and tasty. 6. The Tshudic primstave is a short wooden or bone block, having six sides. It is thick in the middle and tapers toward both ends. The Sundays are marked simply by incisions on the edges where two planes meet. The symbols are few and very coarse. It is hoped that many vexed questions in reference to the relation of these Teutonic almanacs to the calendar of Julius Caesar will now be cleared up, as this will prove a great aid to Scandinavian chronology.

—One of the much mooted points in Provençal literature is the existence of an extensive epical literature. The affirmative was warmly supported by Fauriel in his *'Histoire de la Littérature Provençale,'* who adduces as arguments in favor of his theory all the mentions made of special subjects in various Provençal poems. These subjects, however, were common to all Europe in the Middle Ages, and it seems hardly possible that if Provençal poems on these subjects existed they should have disappeared and only be preserved in the works of the *Trouvères*. Fauriel, in the third volume of his history, gives a list of these supposed epical poems, which, however, is far from complete, and the student of this interesting subject will be glad to know that these deficiencies are corrected in a recent German work: *'Ueber die den provenzalischen Troubadours des XII. und XIII. Jahrhunderts bekannten epischen Stoffe,'* by Dr. Adolf Birch-Hirschfeld (Halle, 1878). The author has assembled an astonishing number of allusions to the personages of epical poems, many of whom have never been heard of before, and who cannot be connected with any known epical cycle. After a mention of the sources, which consist principally of didactic poems known as *ensenhamens*, the author divides his material into three classes: the first embraces references to antique-classical, Byzantine, and Biblical subjects; the second to the cycle of Brittany; and the third to the French hero legends and other narrative poems belonging to France. The author concludes that in general the knowledge of epical poems came to the Provençals from the north of France, as the great mass of references are shown to allude to French poems which still exist or are known to have once existed. Some degree of independence, he says, existed in the field of the love *Novelle*, and we must regard as Provençal property the *Novelle* of Andrieu of Paris and the Queen of France. Traces of other short narrative poems are not wanting, as those of Bertolai, Linaure, and Massot; to these are to be added perhaps Virgil myths (of Italian-Byzantine origin). Finally, it is probable that the Provençals first independently put into poetic form Byzantine materials.

—A correspondent writing from Frederickstaed, Santa Cruz, W. I., under date of November 1, sends us an interesting account of the late disastrous uprising of the blacks in that Danish possession. The chief incidents of bloodshed and arson have been already made public through the daily press, but the following seems worth printing as an illustration of the working of gradual emancipation:

"The grievances of the plantation negroes were in many respects un-

doubtedly genuine, and should have been redressed long since. The Labor Act of the island was the cause of most of the troubles. This act, made in 1849, was intended to cover the transition period from slavery to freedom. Although intended to be provisional, it has been in force ever since that time, and has been strictly carried out until very lately. By it the laborers on the sugar estates are required to enter into a contract for a year or to leave the island: they are not allowed to remain unemployed. Passes are necessary before the negroes can leave, and every obstacle is thrown in the way of departure. The negroes are required to carry out their part of the contract faithfully, and all of the existing Governmental machinery is used to see the law executed. The rate of wages is established by the act: first-class laborers, either male or female, being required to work five days of the week at ten cents a day, and in addition a small allowance of provisions, a house, and a lot of ground are given. Extra labor is paid at double rates. From this pay three cents a week are deducted for medical attendance, and it is in the power of the manager of the estate to fine the laborer for offences either real or imaginary. As far as I can learn, the wages have been paid regularly at the end of each week. The whole system theoretically left the blacks on the estates in a transition state, neither slave nor free, but by its practical workings it was a mild system of slavery. It is but fair to say that the planters were willing to have the restriction placed upon the rate of wages abolished, but insisted upon the yearly contract.

"The entire white population of the island is about 2,000, while the plantation hands alone number more than 2,000. With this great difference in numbers it is surprising that so little precaution was taken against a rising of the negroes, and against all the evils possible from a servile insurrection. The establishment of a central Government factory, modelled after the *usine* of the French islands, has indirectly been one of the causes of the late troubles. By the establishment of this factory it was intended to separate the manufacture of sugar from the cultivation of the cane, and in this way to get better results in both cases. The idea was an excellent one, but the execution has been bungling and unsatisfactory. One of the results of the mismanagement has been that laborers at the factory have been paid very high wages, thus breaking the Labor Act and demoralizing the labor on the sugar estates. The grant given to the factory by the home Government required the abolition of the Labor Act within three years; but the blacks supposed the Labor Act would be abolished at once, and on finding it still in force this October felt much aggrieved.

"The labor question, though much exaggerated by the peculiar state of affairs in Santa Cruz, is not a troublesome question on that island alone, but throughout the whole of the West Indies. The abundance of food, the slender requirements for clothing or shelter, and the indolence of the blacks make the supplying of steady, prolonged labor like that needed in the cane-field a difficult matter. Besides, sugar from the beet-root is coming into active competition with the cane-sugar, with labor, climate, and proximity to market in favor of the former. Although the negroes on the neighboring islands are better treated than those on Santa Cruz, still the whites there are none the less insecure in their feelings. It has not been long since the negro 'insurrection' in Jamaica was 'stamped out' by Gov. Eyre; negro riots occurred recently in Barbadoes; Tortola has passed through the experience of Santa Cruz; and at Porto Rico the Spanish authorities felt the danger of the Santa Cruz outbreak so much that they embarked 300 cavalry ready to start at once in case their offer of assistance was accepted by the Danish Governor. The damages resulting from the destruction of property on the island by the rioters have been estimated at about one million of dollars, which may not seem great; but the loss is really almost crushing, coming as it does after a succession of bad seasons. The one certain result of this disturbance will be the abolition or modification of the Labor Act."

#### MISSOURI LAWYERS.\*

THE fact that the United States are fast attaining a respectable age is brought very strongly to mind by this book. Despite the famous compromise of 1820, which has passed into the region of history, Missouri seems a very new State when compared with the original thirteen. She is still so young that only one of her Senators was born within her limits, and it is rather startling, therefore, to find that so late an addition to the Union has a legal history extending over nearly three-quarters of a century: it makes us realize that the youth of the Eastern communities has departed.

Judge Bay's volume gives a very good idea of the development of Missouri in many respects, and his sketches are entertaining in more ways than one. The book itself, the characters portrayed, and, above all, the literary style, are very typical and peculiar. The style particularly, both as to words and grammar, will afford a subject of curious enquiry to the future philologist. The prevailing characteristic is size. Expression and thought alike smack strongly of a race living by the longest river in the world and in a valley capable of sustaining countless millions of human beings. There is something so genuine and yet so funny about it all that it gives the book an interest apart from its intrinsic value. In the first place, the author always refers to himself in the first person plural with a persis-

\* *'Reminiscences of the Bench and Bar of Missouri. By W. V. N. Bay, late Judge of the Supreme Court of Missouri.'* St. Louis: F. H. Thomas & Co. 1878.

tenacy and frequency that recall the anti-Jacobin sneer at Erskine's speeches, which always exhausted the font of the capital I. This editorial plural turns up on every page, in narrating all sorts of circumstances, and in the strangest combinations. It makes one feel as if these lives were a constant succession of such editorial interviews as appear in the comic paragraphs of the Burlington *Hawkeye*. Then, we find that there are apparently few or no women in Missouri, but only "ladies," and generally "ladies of great intelligence, refinement, beauty, worth, and fine literary tastes." No one in Missouri ever "went" or "settled" or "remained" anywhere. Everybody "located." It is needless to add that there are no "situations" in Missouri, geographically speaking, but only "locations." Almost every man of any education at all appears to have been a "profound classical scholar," or "a brilliant historian or poet or student of literature," or at least a remarkable linguist. Whenever a death is recorded the author indulges in brief reflections of the very sublimest kind, and usually winds up with some apt quotation as "Death loves a shining mark"; "What shadows we are," etc. In the midst of the fine language it is rather refreshing to come across the statement that Benton was the "right-bower" of Jackson's Administration, and that a certain nameless attorney was a "shyster."

These little peculiarities of expression do not, however, in the least injure the real interest of the book. The sketches must include almost every man of the slightest importance who has practised at the Missouri bar within half a century. Almost all held public offices of some sort, and many served under the National Government. Very few of them, however, ever attained a national reputation, the great majority having only the narrowest local notoriety. Among those who became known beyond the borders of the State were Benton, *facile princeps*, whose biography is the first of the series; David Barton, the first Senator, whose career was cut short by his advocacy of Mr. Adams in 1825; John Scott, who gave the vote of Missouri to Mr. Adams at that time and thereby met his political death; Gamble, the war-governor; Edward Bates, Mr. Lincoln's attorney-general, and Frank Blair, whose career is still fresh in every one's memory. The most striking point about the legal fraternity in Missouri, as a class, is that they all had military titles. Many were "generals," still more "colonels," and few were so poor as not to be "majors" or "captains." If the "judges" are added, it may be safely said that untitled lawyers were so scarce in Missouri that the mere profession was almost equivalent to an order of nobility. In the beginning a lawyer had to be familiar with the civil and Spanish law bequeathed by the previous proprietors as well as with the common law.

The effect of this mingling of systems must have been far from good. Life in Missouri while yet a Territory and when first a State was wild and rough in the extreme. The wager of battle, without much regard probably to its antiquity as a custom, was the prevailing mode of settling disputes among the population. The force of a judicial decision was much what it was in England when the Paston Letters were written. If the successful party could gather sufficient physical force to execute a judgment he was likely to be satisfied, but not otherwise. Down to a very late period, Judge Bay informs us, "court-day" was the time when the inhabitants met to decide their differences in the prize-ring, and one learned judge, who took a great interest in the manly art, was in the habit of adjourning his court to be present at the fighting. The rude and unsettled state of society was, of course, exemplified by the lawyers. They were apparently much addicted to drinking, and not a few were extremely dissolute. This, however, was but little regarded. Many of them were noted duellists, and all seem to have been ready to become so. Colonel Benton "had the reputation of being a duellist," though the author says "we know he was opposed to it on principle." This reputation was hardly without foundation, as Benton killed one man (five of whose brothers, by the way, died by violence) on Bloody Island, near St. Louis, and fought several other duels. Some of these duels were of a very savage character, as in the case of Spencer Pettis, member elect of Congress, and one Major Biddle. Biddle was near-sighted, so they fought at five paces, and not unnaturally both were killed at the first fire. Another rather striking case was that of Judge Leonard, a New-England man who settled in a portion of Missouri where there was a strong prejudice against "Yankees, their puritanical education, and their aversion to duelling." This prejudice found expression in one Major Berry, who, being a very large man, laid hold of Leonard, who was very small, and horse-whipped him. This Leonard resented, and, getting over his scruples, called Berry out and put a rifle-bullet through his heart—an act which he always told his wife he never regretted.

Shirts appear to have been the cause of many incidents in legal life,

as they were, seemingly, not thoroughly well recognized in Missouri. One gentleman was the hero of the story of putting on six shirts one over the other, so little was he accustomed to the laborious habit of changing them. David Barton, when passing the night at a friend's house, was offered a shirt, which seems to have been an article of hospitality. This particular shirt had a cotton body and a linen bosom, "which struck Mr. Barton's sense of propriety." He at first hesitated about putting it on at all, but then concluded to put it on *back in front*. Having effected this change, he came out adjusting the collar and said: "Look here, S., this shirt is a d—d fraud, and I don't mean to be a party to it." Judge Tompkins, of the Supreme Court, "who dressed very plain but never could tolerate slovenliness in others," heard one day a long argument in a case by a lawyer named Mendell. About the time of adjourning, Judge Tompkins interrupted the counsel by saying: "Mr. Mendell, it is impossible for this court to see any law through as dirty a shirt as you have on, and this court will now adjourn until ten o'clock to-morrow morning, to give you an opportunity to change your linen." This is a very mild example of the language, manners, and habits of the Missouri judges, although Judge Bay says there was never any loss of real dignity. There is one rather striking example of this kind in the case of a learned judge who always drank a pint of whiskey before holding court. If he exceeded this allowance the author says he was apt to be confused, and this led to both court and counsel "perpetrating a good deal of mother wit." When the author was admitted to the bar he passed two days in fuddling with brandy Judge Tompkins, who examined him. On another occasion the author, a friend named S., and one Judge Ansell were forced to occupy a room together in a crowded hotel. There was a great disturbance in the night, which on enquiry was found to be caused by an attempt on the part of Mr. S. to strangle Judge Ansell. The author, however, explained in facetious terms that his friend S. had delirium tremens, nothing more; and the judge, receiving this statement without any mark of surprise, assisted the author to keep his unlucky friend awake during the remainder of the night, and the next day they all went on their way together. The members of the Missouri bar appear to have sworn freely, and the author has not attempted either to disguise or to soften their language in this respect. Mr. Peyton B. Hayden, for example, "indulged largely in profane language, but his profanity was not of the kind which shocks one's sensibility," and the author gives the following anecdote as characteristic of Mr. Hayden's "harmless profanity." A Methodist preacher chanced to look over Hayden's shoulder one day in court when that gentleman was taking notes of the opposing speech with the intention of replying. This is what the Methodist read: "By God! he has travelled out of the record. By God! I will travel out of the record too." The preacher thereupon asked Hayden if he swore in court, and the latter replied at once that any one who said he did was "a d—d liar." The book is full of such anecdotes incidental to the subjects, and interspersed by the author from his own experience.

The general tone of the book is highly eulogistic and always grandiloquent, but there is at the same time a good deal of frank and shrewd criticism. Yet the class caricatured by Dickens as alluding to everybody as "One of the most remarkable men in the country, sir!" is not wholly extinct, and one cannot but wonder by what tests intellectual ability is tried in Missouri when it is stated that Gideon Granger was a "man of transcendent abilities and one of the most profound men of his day." The immense political importance of lawyers in a half-civilized community, the extraordinary mixture of races in early Missouri history, the desperate struggle between the Virginia and New England elements for the possession of the State in 1820, and finally the awful condition of affairs in 1860, have much light thrown on them by Judge Bay's biographies. There are also a few hitherto unpublished letters given relating to the Burr conspiracy, and they confirm in every point Wilkinson's complicity in the plot, and his subsequent betrayal of his leader. Despite the superficial magnificence of expression one cannot but feel kindly towards the author, who is always genial and honest and well-intentioned, while many of his incidental opinions—as, for example, on trial by jury—are sensible and thoughtful.

#### RECENT POETRY.\*

JOAQUIN MILLER has not grown under the influence of culture and civilization and longer practice in writing into the poet it was hoped he would become. The 'Songs of Italy' have the same spontaneous vigor, the same vividness and originality of imagery, the same lack of pro-

\* 'Songs of Italy. By Joaquin Miller.' Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1873.



portion, of taste and thought, the same excellences and defects, as the 'Songs of the Sierras,' although their distribution is perhaps more even. Italy would move the heart of the dullest of poets, and she has kindled in him no common emotion; but it is plain that he has lost in his change of subject. His first poems will remain the earliest and thus far the best poetic embodiment of the romantic elements in the pioneer days of the Plains, the Sierras, and the great wastes, and the only poetic description of their strange and impressive scenery. As such they were valuable, notwithstanding their open and manifold faults. In Italy he has felt the romance of Venice and St. Mark's, and the desolation of Torcello and the Roman plains. He has, as was to be expected, his interest mainly in the picturesque life of the lower classes, the traditional bandit, the duelling cavalier, the ungoverned passions whose working he has seen or fancied; and his complaint of the age of gold, the lack of love, his own unsatisfied loneliness, is a constant strain; but the poetic result of these motives is less than before. He has suffered, too, in that his verses often recall in thought and phrase Swinburne and Browning. "The Dove of St. Mark" is a subject which needs the tenderest handling in order to avoid disgust, and Rossetti only has succeeded in this line in his poem of "Jenny," which it recalls. "The Ideal and the Real," a poem of the same order and subject, is worse. "A Garibaldian's Story" and "Implora" seem to us the most excellent of this collection, and "Recollection" is perhaps a fair example of the poet's normal work. He is at best a poet who requires great charity; his faults are on the surface, his excellences are less prominent and constant; and in this volume the reader will often be offended by phrases, crudities in thought, and suggestions of the most unpleasant things, and at the end may feel that he has paid dearly for what pleasure he has got. We shall have to bear with the most abnormal moods toward women of the street; to hear much nonsense about the search for the twin soul who was made the poet's mate before the stars were sown, and whom he finds in a Venetian *bagnio*; to listen to the poet's preference for the "dashing, bold robber" over the "shopman," and much of the same sort. For ourselves, we got pleasure and profit from the reading, but we wait for the time when the poet shall return to the forests and mountains of which he first sang.

Mr. Bayard Taylor has given us in 'Prince Deukalion' an allegoric sketch of the spiritual history of mankind from the time when the pagan was passing into the Christian age; and, as he informs us in his argument, he has employed the old device "of making personages stand for powers and principles, yet (he earnestly desireth) without losing that distinctness of visage and those quick changes of blood which keep them near to the general heart of man." It would in any case require great skill to make us see a real woman in a being who has been labelled at the beginning the Mediæval Ecclesiastical System; and neither in her case nor in the other characters, whose principle of life is not so plain, has Mr. Taylor breathed into his creations any very vigorous life or brought about any illusion. Like Prince Deukalion himself before his "airy substance" becomes incarnated in actual humanity towards the close of the last act, all his associates hold in their veins a scant and pale ichor unreddened by any "pulse of blood." It is necessary, therefore, to accept the poem as an allegory and not as a drama in any but a formal sense. It is in four divisions, each of which mirrors associated phases of human feeling, achievement, or aspiration at different eras—the early Christian, the mediæval, the present, and the future. In attempting thus to write of the highest spiritual result in the past and the highest spiritual hope of the future, Mr. Taylor has won the success which a man of talent could attain by a vigorous *tour de force*. There is much clear thought, direct expression, and melodious verse, particularly in the choruses, which seem to us the best work in the volume. His creed, however, is not a new one, nor is it enforced with any new vigor, clearness, or beauty of utterance. The promised land which he looks forward to is one where all human functions will enjoy energetic activity, as appears from the language of Agathon (Child of Prince Deukalion, the Ideal Man, and of Pyrrha, the Ideal Woman) to Buddha, who bids him "learn to renounce"—

"But I accept—even all this conscious life  
Gives in its fullest measure—gladness, health,  
Clean appetite, and wholeness of my claim  
To knowledge, beauty, aspiration, power!  
Joy follows action here; and action bliss  
Hereafter!"

Or, stating this legitimacy of all desires in another way than by prophecy of the blissful state wherein they may ultimately be allowed, the author blames Christian faiths for their dwarfing mankind by repression either on the side of sense or of knowledge; or, stating it in another way still,

he apprehends no loss to any one through exercise of liberty, as where Agathon says to Calchas (the Religion of the North):

"Nay, Priest, thou warrest with pure intelligence  
That rays all whither from its central flame,  
And reaches God on Power's or Beauty's side  
As on Devotion's!  
Denial cannot 'scape him, sacrilege stray  
Beyond his pity, for by any path  
The seeking spirit miss."

As showing the lights and shadows in which the past and future lie in the sight of this school, the book is valuable; as a poem, it has passages, like the vision of Prince Deukalion, of force and beauty; but we doubt whether it will advance Mr. Taylor's claim to be an original poet. If one would see how a poet treats a similar theme, and would contrast the work of genius with the utmost that talent can achieve, let him read the 'Prometheus Unbound' of Shelley.

The poems of Mrs. Sarah Helen Whitman will always interest the curious in literature as the work of the woman to whom Poe was affianced not long before his death, and those in this volume which relate to him, beside their extrinsic romantic interest, are the most impassioned and vigorous, we think, that the volume contains. Twenty-five years ago some of the poems here printed were issued in a small book entitled 'Hours of Life, and Other Poems,' and to these are now added as many more written in later years, including one written at the age of seventy-five. The earlier seem to us the better poems, and they show a remarkable power of natural description, strong and pure sentiment, and a freshness of impression which is rare among our minor poets. Here and there, naturally enough, one catches echoes from the peculiar music of Poe's verse, but all beside is original and seems to have sprung directly from the experience of the writer. All is not equally valuable, but we are sure no one can read without pleasure the natural descriptions in the early poems, the verses to Poe, and in the latter portion "The Portrait," "Proserpine to Pluto in Hades," or "Night Waives."

'Apple-Blossoms' are the poems of two children who have written them "for the family circle," which has published them as an expression of child-life. The earliest were written at the age of nine, the latest apparently at the age of fifteen in one case and of twelve in the other. They are certainly remarkable productions in view of the circumstances. They describe pleasantly and simply the aspect of inland scenery, the pleasure of children in the spring-time, the birds, the arbutus, the gentian; and frequently in reading we found humming in our memory

"the hour  
Of splendor in the grass, of glory in the flower."

The indoor delights are also sung, and there is a notable absence of childish moralizing. Two portraits of the children appeal to the kindness of the reader, and these, serving as an introduction, will commend the volume to children of a like age with the authors, and we doubt not that they will enjoy it.

Mr. Harvey Rice, who puts forth 'Select Poems,' appears to be of Western lands, although his book has the imprint of an Eastern firm. He rejoices in the West, although his native State is dearer to him, and he foresees the time of "happy millions," of "cities set on hill and plain like gems of art," of telegraph wires, of the decadence of the East, and like circumstances.

"While startling rolls the frantic car  
And bannered glides the gallant boat."

The time of "the frantic car" as a regular mode of transit in the West we trust is far distant, nor have we ever heard it before mentioned as among the prominent promised blessings of the broad prairies. Other poems are devoted to a tour at Mt. Vernon, various natural objects and moral sentiments; a few of them are graceful, and there is one curious attempt at wit in the form of punning upon "the mystical vision of man," but the author was hard put to it when he indited the following irreverent stanzas:

"What a mystical vision is he,  
With his hands and his feet  
Pierced with 'nails' like his Lord on tree,  
And a 'beard' like the wheat!"

"What a mystical vision is he  
When a 'lid' shuts his eye,  
And his 'ghost' pays to Charon a fee  
That is stamped with a 'die'!"

We suppose this to be an attempt at wit, but it is not clear that the author did not attach meaning to the first lines.

'Poems by Sarah Helen Whitman.' Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1879.

'Apple-Blossoms. Verses of two children, Elsie Goodale, Dora Read Goodale,' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1878.

'Select Poems. By Harvey Rice.' Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1878.

'Prince Deukalion: A Lyrical Drama By Bayard Taylor.' Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1878.

'Guatemozin: A Drama' is a story of Mexico in the time of Cortez. It does not show any great strength, but, on the other hand, it never falls below mediocrity. It has the romantic interest which attaches to all tales of that time; but one does not feel any great admiration for the heroes, or any great contempt for the villains. Some scenes are very well executed, and all are free from affectation; the merit of the work is of a negative rather than of a positive character.

With 'The Vision of Echara, and Other Poems' we close our list. With his familiar excellence and humility Whittier celebrates the local traditions of Eastern Massachusetts, strikes the chord of patriotism in "In the Old South," "Lexington," and the "Centennial Hymn," gives the meed of honor to Thiers, Halleck, and Bartlett, and throughout all holds up the same liberal ideal of life and reveals the same charitable and almost sacred spirit. Here is his "Response, 1877," to the friends who honored him:

"Beside that milestone where the level sun,  
Nigh unto setting, sheds his last, low rays  
On word and work irrevocably done,  
Life's blending threads of good and ill outspun,  
I hear, O friends! your words of cheer and praise,  
Half doubtful if myself or otherwise;  
Like him who, in the old Arabian joke,  
A beggar slept and crowned caliph woke,  
Thanks not the less. With not unglad surprise  
I see my life-work through your partial eyes;  
Assured, in giving to my home-taught songs  
A higher value than of right belongs,  
You do but read between the written lines  
The finer grace of unfulfilled designs."

#### KITCHEN REFORM.\*

THE work whose title we give below is a reprint of the 'Official Hand-book of the South Kensington Training School for Cookery.' We noticed the English edition upon its first appearance, and commended the remarkable clearness and apparent excellence of its receipts. It is a good sign that the third American edition of the reprint has been called for within a few months; and as a praiseworthy effort is now making to introduce the South Kensington method of teaching cookery into this country, it will not be inappropriate to call some further attention to the peculiarities of these "Lessons" and of the school in which they originated.

The South Kensington Training School for Cookery, of the Science and Art Department, has been the pioneer of a movement which seems now to have become pretty firmly established in England, and which aims to make practical cookery a matter of regular school instruction among the middle and lower classes of the people. The managers of it had their attention early directed to the subject of cookery mainly with a view to securing greater economy of diet among the working classes, by avoiding waste and showing how provisions may be made to go further by better modes of preparation. But it was soon found that any effort of this kind, in order to attain its object even partially, must be systematic, and provide for the extension of its agencies and influence. It was recognized that if anything adequate was to be done to mitigate the barbarism and elevate the character of popular cookery by showing the people how it might be improved, the first thing necessary was to prepare qualified teachers for the work. The Training School for Cookery was therefore made a Normal School, and it provided not only for teaching girls how to cook, but also especially for training young women to convey the art to others. It is the success of this plan that has given an impulse to the subject throughout the country. A large number of teachers, well trained and regularly certificated, have been sent out, thus opening a new avocation for the sex, creating an interest in an important subject, and qualifying great numbers of women to prepare an economical, varied, and healthful diet for the family. These efforts, too, have met with more general favor and appreciation than was expected. On a subject in relation to which there is a great deal of popular prejudice it was anticipated that the attempt to send teachers through the community to meddle with domestic affairs and old family habits would be resented as an impertinence, or at least received with disfavor. On the contrary, the teachers of cookery appear to have been everywhere welcomed; lectures upon the subject have become common in all the larger towns, and regular cooking schools have been established in many places, either independently or in connection with the Government system of public instruction.

\* 'Guatemozin: A Drama.' By Malcolm MacDonald. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co., 1878.

\* 'The Vision of Echara, and Other Poems.' By John Greenleaf Whittier. Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co., 1878.

\* 'Lessons in Cookery.' Hand-book of the National Training School for Cookery (South Kensington, London). To which is added the Principles of Diet in Health and Disease, by Thomas K. Chambers, M.D. Edited by Eliza A. Youmans. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

But before teachers could be graduated from the Normal Training School, and made competent to go out and establish other schools successfully, the directors had first to elaborate and verify a method of practical teaching. Nothing of this kind had before been wrought out, and it was by no means an easy task. There was no difficulty, of course, in applying the usual school methods of recitations and lectures to the acquirement of information concerning cookery, but all this had been done before, and to very little practical purpose. As chemistry can only be properly acquired in the laboratory, so cookery can only be properly learned in the kitchen; and in both cases the students must practise the necessary manipulations, and learn to do things as well as to understand how they are done. The South Kensington establishment is, therefore, simply a series of kitchens arranged for graded courses of culinary practice. There is an apartment called the demonstration-room, where the students take certain general preliminary instructions from the teacher, such as may be needful for entering directly upon the actual work. Each pupil is then given a place in the kitchen and begins a methodical course of practical cookery. In what manner this should be organized and conducted, so as to make the work feasible for the teacher, effectual for the pupil, and economical for the institution, was the problem the South Kensington managers had before them. A strong teaching force was required, since each instructor could attend to but a small group of pupils; but the end was compassed by the Normal feature of the school, in which students were put to teaching as soon as they were suitably prepared. Another difficulty quickly arose in the impossibility of making any oral directions a sufficient guide to the details of work. Every grade of capacity and incapacity had to be provided for, and every expedient resorted to to make each lesson a success. The managers drew up printed directions for preparing dishes, which were furnished on separate sheets to each pupil at each lesson. All the steps to be taken were carefully stated, numbered in their true order, and put down in the plainest language so as to prevent even the dullest from going wrong. The object aimed at was the utmost simplicity possible in the directions for carrying on the work. Each printed sheet was thus the full and minute receipt for a dish, but it was much more than a mere receipt in its ordinary acceptance. The relation of the receipts of this volume to those of our current cook-books is very much that of science to common knowledge; they are precise, accurate, and methodical, while those of previous cook-books are generally vague and loose, and wanting in the orderliness of their directions. The training-school receipts thus became valuable lessons in practical cookery. The attention of the South Kensington managers and teachers was carefully concentrated upon this part of their work, and the lessons were simplified, extended, and improved by a long course of experiments and of trials with pupils of all grades. When the directions were perfected as far as possible, the sheets that had been separately employed for practice were combined into a volume and published as the official hand-book of the school. It is to this thoroughness of preparation and equipment of the teachers, who knew exactly what they were able to do, that the success of the schools subsequently established in different parts of the country is to be ascribed.

The volume they have produced has undoubted merit independent of the agency of teachers specially trained in its method. It is the simplest guide to kitchen operations that has yet been produced, and may be successfully followed by any persons of common sense, as nothing is taken for granted, and the directions are explicit and complete. The book goes, perhaps, about as far as print can go to help those who wish to instruct themselves in the culinary preparation of food. It is, of course, English in many of its features; but beef and bread, and the principles of good cookery, are not monarchical monopolies. Many American articles of diet are not mentioned in the book, but its two hundred "Lessons" cover broad ground, and, dealing chiefly with staple dishes, they offer abundant and pertinent examples for general practice, and the work claims nothing else. The American edition has been revised by its editor, Miss Eliza A. Youmans, who was a student at South Kensington and familiar with the teaching there. The essential character of the lessons is unchanged, but there was a redundancy and repetition in the form of statement, and other peculiarities growing out of the circumstances of the teaching, that were misunderstood in this country, and have accordingly been omitted. Miss Youmans contributes an instructive preface on the history and claims of the work, and has appended to the volume a valuable essay on the "Principles of Diet in Health and Disease," by Dr. Thomas K. Chambers.

Any step forward, however slight, in the direction of kitchen reform is to be cordially commended; and if it shall prove that the founders of



these training schools for cookery have made a real advance in the herculean task of rescuing the kitchen from its traditional degradation, they will be entitled to an eminent place among the benefactors of mankind. It may be very properly added here that an effort is now making to introduce the South Kensington method of teaching and practising the art of cookery into this country. Miss M. L. Dods, a graduate of the London school who has had experience in establishing a similar institution in Edinburgh, has just given a course of demonstration lectures in New York, and hopes to be able to form practice-classes in which pupils shall be set to work systematically. It is to be hoped that in this she will meet with liberal encouragement so as to give the method a fair trial here. Intelligent ladies who have attended her demonstrations speak highly of her capacity both as a teacher and a cook, and are very favorably impressed with the method of training which she so pleasantly and successfully represents.

*Children's Books.*—In juvenile literature the changes of fashion are certainly to be regretted. This truth is brought home to every one who seeks to provide the young with reading and has not time to examine the fresh productions of our publishers. How few are the standard works in which he would fain take refuge; and to what bookstore could he go to find those favorites of our mothers and grandmothers as regularly displayed as the season of gift-making comes round? They can all be had by searching, but then comes the choice of the edition, and who is to be one's guide? We know where not to go for Miss Alcott's works or Oliver Optic's or Mayne Reid's; but where shall we turn for the best edition of 'Sanford and Merton' or the 'Mother's Assistant' or 'Robinson Crusoe' or 'Æsop'? As we recently remarked, the 'American Catalogue' partly answers this question: it displays all the editions before us, and to some extent enables us to guess at the best. But, so far as we are aware, no bookseller makes it a point to keep in stock a reasonable assortment of juvenile classics.

These remarks have been prompted by the edition of Bewick's 'Select Fables' just issued by Longmans, Green & Co., London—a limited edition, we believe, presaging a limited demand, though it would be a hardship not to be able to procure this book at any time. We know what masters have since Bewick's day been employed to illustrate Æsop; Tenniel's grace, Grisct's fancy, Herriek's and Weir's accomplished animal delineation, are each and all well in their way, and Bewick in Saint's edition of 1784 (from which this present is a reprint) was far from having reached the incomparable skill he afterwards displayed both in design and in engraving. Still, there is a simplicity and directness about these cuts which brings them close to the childish apprehension, while some of the brute figures and not a few of the landscapes are among the best that Bewick ever executed; and, in all, the fulness either of incident or scenic detail is quite beyond the meaningless wash of the modern draughtsman's background. The text is antiquated in the sense of being too elevated for the very young, but, as Mr. Pearson undertakes to prove in the preface, it is probably Goldsmith's, and in reading aloud it is no disadvantage for a child to hear occasionally a word he does not understand except by the context, or will have explained to him before the reading proceeds. Decidedly, the artistic and the literary-historic associations of the 'Select Fables' outweigh all its archaisms.

It remains to say, bibliographically, that this work first appeared in 1871, and that then as now Bewick's original blocks were used to print from. The differences are that the editor's preface has been revised to advantage, is less marred with italics and positiveness of statement, contains a few more specimens of cuts from other works of Bewick (but also drops some), and, what is a great consideration, presents a portrait of the artist. On the other hand the cuts are less evenly printed, as a whole, than in the edition of 1871, and for some reason unknown to us ten of them have different borders allotted to them. We may add, for the benefit of those to whom this edition may be inaccessible, that copies of the edition of 1871 are obtainable at Geo. Routledge & Sons' in this city.

When we turn to nursery literature certainly we do not recall a more sumptuous edition of 'Mother Goose's Melodies' than that reissued by Houghton, Osgood & Co. One only marvels that colored pictures were thought capable of enhancing the worth of a book already equipped with an historical introduction on the Boston "Goose or Vergoose Family," and antiquarian notes, and nine of the jingles set to music, with as many woodcut designs at their head. But the publishers evidently know how to be as generous as the editor, who does not stick at including among the "Melodies" a parody on a well-known piece of Charles

Mackay's, nonsense verses from Edwin Lear, and even prose *Mährchen*. For a pure text of Mother Goose, with no admixture, one must seek further and will probably fare better as regards price. It is not to be found, by the way, in Mr. J. F. Goodridge's 'Mother Goose in White' (Lee & Shepard), which is quite as heterogeneous as the preceding in its collection of rhymes, and witless and inartistic in its fifty full-page blackboard designs.

Mrs. Charles Ellis's 'Summer in Normandy' (Geo. Routledge & Sons) calls for a full measure of praise. It is a well-bred, motherly account of an English family's sojourn at a French farm-house not far from Mont St. Michel in the eventful summer of 1870. It opens with a glimpse of the home in England, and ends with a description of a Scotch farm-house, while all the rest of the book tells of the quiet life across the Channel, in a region of wells but no pumps; of caps that have come in from Paris, and are no longer "the real old Norman caps," "rising a foot from the head, stiffened with starch and wire"; of cuttle-fish bones, of samphire gatherers and fishermen. Of course a visit was made to the Mount and its castle, and there was a picnic to the sandy shore "said to have been once an enormous forest, and if you dig deep enough you may find remains of trees in the sand," and where the children gather cockles without digging. Then come the rumors of war, and slowly after these the war itself, applauded by these rustics till the humbug of the *tout va bien* telegrams is revealed; then the surrender at Sedan, when the villagers follow Paris in proclaiming the Republic, and in pulling down all the Imperial signs and eagles. At the dread name of the Republic all the English incontinently take to flight, in spite of the entreaty and assurances of the Imperial sub-prefect; the Ellises do not lag behind, and on their way to Cherbourg pass amid warlike scenes of sad omen. All this is a useful picture of French character, in peace and in the greatest of national trials, to set before our boys and girls. Such of them as know a little French will get along best with the phrases here and there quoted by Mrs. Ellis.

More distinctly a child's story is that called 'Little Speckly, or, The Adventures of a Chicken, told by Herself,' a fable of French origin, and very good and wholesome in every way (Routledge). This extraordinary fowl, who escapes the pot with unvarying success amid all her shifting experiences in high and low, city and barnyard and forest life, would be perfectly happy but for the acquired knowledge that she has no soul. She contrives, however, to furnish many a salutary lesson to those who have souls in the course of her entertaining narrative, and may well become as an authoress the pet that she began and ended by being on account of her resemblance to a partridge.

'The Chicken Market and Other Fairy Tales,' by Prof. Henry Morley, with illustrations by Charles G. Bennett (Cassell, Petter & Galpin), is a reprint of stories published several years ago. Some of them are beautiful, some ingenious, but they are not true fairy tales of the old sort; they lack lightness and variety of movement, and are often simply the grotesque development of some single fancy to its ultimate results, in the conditions and laws of the new world, which the truth of the fancy would make necessary; but, worst of all, they have a moral. Of course in every fairy tale there is a silken thread of reason that winds in and out through all the elusive transformations in the unreason of fairyland, but it is never obtrusive, it does not tell a child it is there to make him good any more than a sea-breeze tells him it is there to make him healthy. Prof. Morley, it is true, has sometimes sheathed the moral so deftly that only a mind trained in the metempsychoses of metaphor will discover it, but, to make up for this, he has sprinkled in here and there a story of a single page whose moral is in A B C characters, and ordinarily it is written in big letters everywhere. This must be considered a blemish in fairy tales, the office of which is to quicken the imagination rather than develop the conscience, and besides this he occasionally presumes a considerably larger acquaintance with life than is general among children who read fairy tales—as, for example, is the case, we believe, where he talks about playing pool-billiards; but the collection is much better, as a whole, than most that fall from the pens of modern writers, and if it should do anything to regain for fairy tales the place in education which they have yielded to primers of machines and "real things," it will have contributed to a welcome work.

'Play Days, a Book of Stories for Children,' by Sarah O. Jewett (Houghton, Osgood & Co.), contains brief and pleasantly-told stories without invention and with staring morals. Dolls, kittens, playhouses, the histories of buttons, Crusoeing on a small scale, and like matters are the subjects, which make the book, consequently, one for girls especially, and doubtless, if they are good-natured, it will have a mild medicinal ef-

fect upon their moral sense. On the other hand, H. C. Barkley's 'My Boyhood: a Story for Boys' (E. P. Dutton & Co.) refreshingly goes to the other extreme and is as free as possible from nonsensical purism. The tale purports to be true, and in it the author relates his adventures with his dogs and horses, the little incidents which occurred in his sports, of which he was very fond, and the peccadilloes which he seems to have enjoyed with a becoming satisfaction. The scene is laid in a clergyman's family in the eastern counties of England, and one gets by the way characteristics of the community, sketches of individual peculiarities, and glimpses of such soberer life as cannot be kept altogether from children's eyes. The ideal which the book will incite its readers to reach is the being a rough rider, a strong swimmer, and a dead shot—an out-of-door, noisy, adventurous existence.

'Prairie Days; or, The Boys and Girls of Osego,' by Mary B. Sleight (E. P. Dutton & Co.), is a story of child life in a family which was forced by misfortune to go West, and so we are introduced to log-huts, rattlesnakes, Indians, and the days before the railroads destroyed frontier life in Illinois; but this local flavor is soon lost, and in the larger part of the volume the scene might as well have been laid anywhere in America. The children, by a modern improvement on the old-style Sunday-school book, are not always good, but good at one remove—that is, they have their faults and follies, but are immediately sorry, freely confess, and never do so any more. They honor their father and their mother, delight in farm-work and house-work, are kind to all sorts of people, and in general all goes as merrily as could be desired in a well-regulated family into which no native bad nature has intruded. Possibly the depth of degradation into which Hugh is thrown by his first college escapade is a little overstated; possibly Maud is a trifle facile in her mastery of the mysteries of making soup and chicken-pie; but as the aim of the book seems to be to make little girls contented to wash dishes and little boys cautious about drinking currant wine out of a keg, there is no need of any further criticism than to remark that it is admirably fitted to develop these qualities where the environment is in these respects as favorable as it seems to have been in Osego.

*William Dawes, and his Ride with Paul Revere.* An Essay read before the N. E. Historic-Genealogical Society on June 7, 1876. To which is appended a Genealogy of the Dawes family. By Henry W. Holland. (Boston: 100 copies privately printed for the author. 1878. Pp. 128.)—As will be readily seen, this book is divided into two parts; one personal and relating to a well-known episode in our Revolutionary history, the other genealogical purely. The first is a vindication of the claim of William Dawes to the honor of being one of the two men who roused the country on the eventful night preceding the battle of Lexington. It seems pretty well established, after all the discussions, that Captain John Pulling hung the signal-lanterns in the Christ-church steeple for which Conant and Devens watched in Charlestown. They despatched an express, name unknown, who was soon captured, and thereby missed his chance for fame. Revere soon afterwards crossed to Charlestown in a boat and began his famous ride, already transformed by the glamour of poetry to an unrecognizable splendor. William Dawes started at about the same time over Boston Neck, thence went through Brighton and Cambridge, and rejoined Revere at Lexington Common. Later, being reinforced by Dr. Prescott, the trio started for Concord. Revere was soon captured by the British troops, but one of the others arrived safely. Dawes afterwards joined the Continental forces, and was appointed commissary at Worcester. He was undoubtedly a devoted and brave patriot,

but his title to remembrance lies in that one night's work. Mr. Holland has brought out all possible details, on the best authority.

The second and larger part of the book is a good genealogy of the descendants of William Dawes, a mason of Boston. His descendants have been numerous and respectable, and his blood flows in the veins of many of the solid citizens of that famous city. Senator Henry L. Dawes, however, belongs to a branch not yet affiliated to this main line. The genealogy is elaborate and well furnished with references and an index. A number of portraits add to the interest, and the whole book will take a high rank in this class of writings.

*The College Book.* Edited by Charles F. Richardson and Henry A. Clark. (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1878.)—This is a large volume, similar in style of publication to the 'Harvard Book' published a few years ago by the same editors. It contains an account of twenty-four leading colleges, including the Naval and Military Academies and Vassar. These colleges are described in such a way, as the preface says, as "to present in a compact yet readable form material for a sufficiently full knowledge of the history, resources, and aims of the several institutions, as understood by their officers and friends." In many cases the articles are by graduates or resident teachers at the several colleges, and are, therefore, to be read with more or less caution as being the most favorable presentment of the merits of rivals, but they are also based upon the fullest knowledge. In consequence of the authorship there is great variety in the modes of treatment, but with the single exception of Cornell, which is very insufficiently described, all the articles seem satisfactory. The book will be of great service to persons whose work is in the direction of college education, since it reveals clearly many varying modes of education and the steps by which each has been advanced or modified. We think it is to be regretted that it is not issued in cheaper and less luxurious style; the copy which we have received is for ornament as much as for use. It is profusely illustrated with about sixty heliotype of the buildings and grounds, the old universities receiving the larger number.

## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
A Masque of Poets.....	(Roberts Bros.) \$1 00
Atkinson (Prof. W. P.), On the Right Use of Books.....	" " 50
Beers (Prof. H. A.), Century of American Literature.....	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 00
Bryant (W. C.), Thanatopsis: Illustrated.....	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 2 50
Burnett (Mrs. F. H.), Kathleen: a Tale, swd.....	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 40
Pretty Polly Pemberton, swd.....	" " 40
Lindsey's Luck, swd.....	" " 30
Clark (E. L.), The Races of European Turkey.....	(Dodd, Mead & Co.) 3 00
Cook (Rev. J.), Conscience.....	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 1 50
Cowan (F.), Southwestern Pennsylvania in Song and Story.....	" (Frank Cowan) 2 00
Handbook of Nursing.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 25
Hawley (R.), Essay on Free-Trade, swd.....	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 25
Holmes (O. W.), The School-boy: Illustrated.....	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)
Johnson (Rev. A. H.), The Normans in Europe.....	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 1 00
Julien (P.), La Conjugaison des Verbes Français.....	(F. W. Christern) 50
Landseer.....	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 50
Macpherson (G.), Memoirs of Anna Jameson.....	(Roberts Bros.) 2 50
McKnight (G.), Life and Faith: Sonnets.....	(Henry Holt & Co.) 2 00
Noite (F.), Histoire des Etats-Unis d'Amérique, 2 vols., swd.....	(F. W. Christern) 6 00
Reid (J. D.), The Telegraph in America.....	(Derby Bros.) 6 00
Rimmer (A.), Pleasant Spots around Oxford.....	(Cassell, Pether & Galpin) 6 00
Spedding (J.), Life and Times of Francis Bacon, 2 vols.....	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)
Taylor (B.), Prince Deukalion.....	" " 3 00
Thaxter (Mrs. C.), Drift-wood: Poetry.....	" " 1 50
Toland (M. B. M.), Iris: a Poem.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 3 00
Vincent (Rev. M. R.), Gates into the Psalm-Country.....	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 1 50
Weeks (E. P.), On Attorneys and Counsellors-at-Law.....	(Sumner, Whitney & Co.) 6 00
Whitman (Sarah H.), Poems.....	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 1 50
Willing (Mrs. C.), Genevieve of Brabant: a Poem.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 2 50

## The Johnson Revival.

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